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Democratic Teaching IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

STILES · DORSEY

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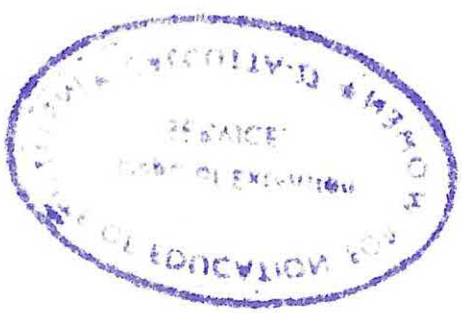

Preface

INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION FOR WOMEN
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This book is designed to help prospective teachers and those in service to acquire the means of democratizing teaching procedures in secondary schools. It is available at a time when considerable progress has been made, both by educators and lay citizens, in clarifying our understanding of the meaning and significance of democracy as a way of life, and when extensive efforts have been initiated to relate the philosophy of democratic education to curricular content and administrative and supervisory practices in secondary schools. In spite of such progress, however, teaching procedures—patterned originally after the methods of teaching in European nations from which our conception of education was borrowed—remain, frequently, autocratic in form and effect and out-of-step with the goals of our democratic society.

It is coming to be generally agreed that the hope of preserving and perpetuating democracy in the United States rests primarily upon our ability to make democracy work better than any other scheme of living. Our success in accomplishing this goal will depend, in large measure, upon the quality of learning experiences provided young people in our schools. It is futile to assume that the secondary school can discharge its social responsibility by providing teachers who employ better and better existing autocratic teaching procedures. Such an approach serves only to make our true objectives obscure, to confuse young people, and to develop individuals incapable of working together co-operatively, of thinking critically, or of assuming responsibilities of self-direction and group welfare which characterize the mature democratic citizen. If the secondary school is to fulfill its function, it must provide for all young people a new type of teaching—teaching adapted to the needs of a democratic society and characterized by goals, procedures, and human relationships that contribute directly to helping students learn—in school—to live together democratically. This book is intended to serve as an aid in developing such teaching.

Emphasis is placed upon facilitating growth and adjustment of students rather than on the development of mastery of subject matter. Both subject matter and teaching procedure are recognized as appropriate means to a broad objective—the development of effective democratic citizens. Re-emphasis is given, however, to the belief that the manner in which learning takes place is equal in importance, when judged by its effect upon behavior, to what is learned. It is in this light

that attention is called to the fact that since democracy is a way of group life, youth can learn democracy only through actual experiences in democratic groups.

Effort has been made throughout the book to help the reader apply the theory of democratic teaching to practical aspects of the instructional process. The organization provides questions at the beginning of each chapter to aid in the recognition of the significance of the problems treated. At the end of each chapter are placed suggested related experiences and readings that are intended to assist groups of teachers and prospective teachers to undertake together the expansion of their learning experiences through democratic procedures.

Beginning with an examination of the need for democratic teaching in secondary schools, the reader will be able to follow the development of those qualities that characterize teaching appropriate to schools in the United States. Consideration is given in Part 1 to the existing relationships between teaching and society. A brief historical development of methods of teaching in American secondary schools, together with an examination of the theory of democratic living, is presented in support of the assumption that a new type of teaching is needed if the social purposes of secondary education are to be realized and the needs of adolescent youth are to be met. The type of teaching needed is visualized as one that will devote major attention to preparing youth to take their place in a democratic society as efficient and independent members inspired with its ideals and competent to improve its practices.

Part 2 is concerned with the need of secondary school teachers to understand the students they teach. Suggestions are offered concerning ways in which teachers can develop appropriate awareness of individual differences within a group and an understanding of the problems that serve to motivate action and adjustments. In addition, a description of the needs of youth—common and individual—is presented together with suggestions of means that are available to the teacher in helping students satisfy their needs. Inasmuch as teaching exists for the purpose of furthering learning, consideration is given to the understanding the teacher needs of the learning process, to ways of creating a desire to learn, and to techniques for appraising learning and growth.

Suggestions for developing democratic methods of teaching are made in Part 3. Attention is given to the contribution of guidance techniques and to the role of group rapport in developing teaching procedures that are democratic in quality and effect. The pattern of teaching described as teacher-student sharing is outlined and examples are presented to show how this method has been employed. Another chapter deals with new techniques for helping groups improve their ability to think and work together.

Consideration is given in Part 4 to adaptation of democratic teaching methods to different age groups. Chapter 17 shows the responsi-

bility of teachers for guiding the initial stages of growth toward independence during junior high school years. In schools in which the 8–4 plan of organization holds, this adaptation will be found helpful in teaching youth found in the last two years of the elementary school and in the first year or two of the high school. The remaining two chapters are devoted, respectively, to the problems of teaching middle adolescents in the senior high school and of helping later adolescents achieve full independence in the junior or community college.

The development of a book such as this is as much a product of its time as it is of the research and experimentation, the insight and reflection of its authors. To the need for democratic methodology in secondary schools, the authors have brought their own interpretations, analyses, convictions, and values. Many persons have contributed either directly or indirectly to the preparation of this book. Specific mention should be made of the help derived from association with professional colleagues in a number of schools and colleges, and in particular, in the Boulder, Colorado, Public Schools; the Mesa County Junior College; the University of Colorado; The College of William and Mary; the University of Illinois, and The Ohio State University. Particular thanks are expressed to Dr. Robert A. Davis and to Mr. Willard M. Brown, whose helpful guidance was enjoyed throughout the preparation of the manuscript. Gratefulness is acknowledged, also, to Dr. Kenneth Arisman and other members of the staff of The University School, The Ohio State University, for the reports of examples of teacher-student sharing that are included.

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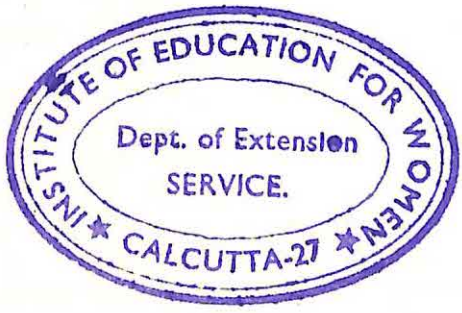

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Democratic Teaching
IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Chapter 1

SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHING: AN INSTRUMENT FOR DEMOCRATIC DEVELOPMENT

A majority of those who read this book, students of education in colleges and universities and teachers in service, will have so recently passed through the secondary schools that they can remember what such institutions are like. All will have impressions of the nature of secondary school students, the curriculum, the process of teaching, extraclass activities, the ideals that are fostered, and the way in which secondary schools meet, or attempt to meet, the needs of students. Yet, many of us who are products of secondary schools are largely unaware of the underlying philosophy that controlled the educational programs we experienced. Many college students believe, for example, that secondary schools exist solely for the purpose of preparing for college. In so believing, they indicate lack of awareness of the fundamental purpose of the secondary school in a democratic society.

Our superficial concept of the functions of secondary education would be a serious personal indictment if it were not for the fact that we do not have an established philosophy of secondary education.[1] We are still endeavoring to characterize the role that secondary education should play in our nation. Within the past fifty years, however, significant progress has been made in developing a philosophy of education compatible with the ideals of a democratic society. The theory of democratic education has now been developed to a point that stands out in sharp contrast to existing educational procedures. This gap between theory and practice of teaching looms today as the principal challenge to all who seek to teach.

Points of View

Four points of view are fundamental to the philosophy implied in the title of this chapter. They emphasize the dependence of our

[1] I. L. Kandel, "The Crisis in Secondary Education," *School and Society*, 66:358, November 8, 1947.

way of life upon teaching and show the necessity for assisting youth in their gradual growing toward a way of life called democracy.

Ways of living depend upon teaching. How we live depends upon how we are taught. Individuals tend to learn the behavior patterns of the leaders of their particular social group. By this means given patterns of living are perpetuated. Youth in a society learn techniques of living appropriate to that society as a result of being subjected to particular kinds of teaching procedures. As a social group becomes unified through a complexity of organization it becomes unwilling to trust the perpetuation of its ideals and customs of living to incidental learning. Each society establishes institutions for formal instruction in its way of life in order to insure the continuation of a particular pattern of living. The quality and character of instruction provided in such institutions determines largely the way of living in the society which provides them.

Democracy is a way of life. Democracy is a *way* of living. The word *way* connotes an on-going process, a method, something being done. It represents a means to an end, not the end itself. As a process of living, democracy involves the participation of all members of society. It is not restricted to a few who are favored by fortune, education, or political power, but is extended to each individual. The democratic way places reliance upon respect for the individual, co-operation among individuals, responsible participation of all individuals, and the free function of individual intelligence directed toward the solution of problems of group living.

The goal of democratic living is the establishment and perpetuation of a pattern of group life that increasingly makes possible a greater amount of personal happiness and well-being. Such a pattern provides for creative expression and self-determinism. It utilizes free inquiry and insures freedom from externally imposed control. It makes these provisions for *all* members of the group.

To foster this way of life, democratic teaching—teaching that assists all youth to grow physically, socially, emotionally, and intellectually through experiences in democratic living—is necessary. Youth subjected to autocratic teaching can never learn the way of living called democracy.

Becoming democratic is a developmental process. Children and youth do not inherit democratic characteristics; they must acquire them. Becoming democratic is not a sudden change; it is a process that takes place gradually and extends over a period of many years.

Beginnings of democratic participation may occur in early childhood, but the development of independent democratic thought and action can take place only during the period of adolescence or later. It is through much sharing in planning and executing group experiences under sympathetic guidance that youth become truly democratic.

Growth toward democracy requires help. It is the privilege of the teacher to provide the encouragement, the assistance, and the opportunities for those in school to grow in competence in democratic living. Without guidance youth fail to develop functional habits, although they may have accepted democratic ideals and have acquired knowledge about freedom and justice.

By giving every pupil a chance to express his interests in practical experiences, to participate in planning and sharing with others, and to accept responsibility for his actions, the school helps him to grow toward democratic independence.

Fundamental Assumptions

Several assumptions supply direction to the ideas presented throughout this book.

Secondary schools are laboratories for democratic development. To say that secondary schools are laboratories for development of democracy does not imply that no other levels of the public school system share this function. Certainly there may be manifestations of democracy even in the nursery school and, of course, the colleges and universities—particularly those that are supported by state funds—must continue to develop and further democratic living if our democracy is to be preserved and perpetuated. Because of the particular nature of the secondary school, the time in a youth's life which is served by this school, and the growth characteristics of secondary school students, this part of the school system has a definite responsibility to develop democratic thinking and action.

Because some students fail to continue their schooling after secondary school years, and because young children are not ready to accept full responsibility of democracy, it follows that the secondary school has the major obligation to provide for its students the opportunity to become independent and responsible members of a democratic society.

Secondary education is based upon age, not subjects. For the purpose of this book it is assumed that secondary education is not a matter of subjects taught but, rather, the period in the pupils' lives between puberty and adulthood—adolescence. It has been

called education for the "teens." Because it normally begins about the age of twelve or thirteen years and does not end until nineteen or twenty, the secondary school period extends over eight years and includes, according to our present classification, junior high school, senior high school, and the junior college.

Secondary education is concerned principally with general education. General education is so named from its purpose, not from its content. It depends on method and quality of teaching rather than on subject matter. It is the kind of education that administers to the common needs of man in the major areas of living. It seeks to increase the competence, that is, the ability and willingness, of youth to assume necessary personal and social responsibilities. The period of general education is the time required to make the student an independent, co-operative individual. For some, only a short period may be required; for others, a much longer time is necessary.

When the student attains independence in thinking, forming judgments, and managing his own affairs, he has reached one of the major goals of secondary education. An independent individual is one who has attained personal competence. He possesses a high degree of mental health and emotional stability, a thorough understanding of himself, and knowledge and habits of healthful living. He has acquired ability to communicate ideas to others, an understanding of the use of number in terms of problems of present-day living, and an appreciation of aesthetic values. He is free from prejudice and unfavorable attitudes toward co-operative living. He possesses a personal philosophy of life, confidence in himself and his worth, and a faith in democracy that sustains him under pressures of problems confronted in living. Although the elementary school administers to common needs, it does so through more specific training, such as building skills in communication, number, and the arts. The secondary school contributes through general education to the building of competency in areas of human activity.

At the upper level of secondary education—the junior or community college—another phase of education becomes necessary, the specialized education that prepares youth to enter readily and effectively into business and industry. It prepares for gainful employment, whereas general education aims primarily to meet all needs related to citizenship.

It is not the subject matter taught in secondary schools that helps youth to become independent thinkers and doers—competent citizens. It is, instead, the method of teaching provided for

youth that guides them in this development, a quality of teaching that interests them in becoming able, self-directing citizens.

Since secondary education provides for all youth, it is more concerned with general education than with specialized education. All students need general education, whereas fewer than half of them require any type of specialized training since they will not enter skilled occupations nor continue in college to prepare for professions.

Secondary education should meet the needs of all adolescents. All youth are members of society and potential adult citizens. As such, they possess the right to participate in the benefits of society, among which is the privilege of sharing the socializing influences of the secondary school. In 1948 it was estimated by John W. Studebaker, United States Comissioner of Education, that of the nine and one-half million youth of secondary age who were enrolled in junior and senior high schools and junior colleges, at least three million were maladjusted because their needs were not being met by secondary schools. To this number can be added an additional five and one-half million youth [2] who had dropped out or never entered secondary schools because of inappropiateness of the experiences provided. Secondary education was, therefore, failing 60 per cent of the nation's adolescent youth, the citizens of the future.

It is frequently asserted that the secondary school only partially meets the personal and social needs of the other 40 per cent of youth who by aptitude, vocational choice, and interest are best adapted to existing secondary school instruction. Basler calls attention to this condition as follows:

> During the past two decades thoughtful educators have become increasingly concerned about the apparent failure of the secondary school to provide educational experiences sufficiently diverse to meet the needs of all youth of high school age. As more members of this age group have sought to avail themselves of a high school education, the inappropriateness of much of our time-honored offerings for meeting the needs of a large proportion of these youth becomes ever more evident.[3]

All youth have common needs growing out of a particular social setting, needs that should be met by the school—a social institution. In addition to the needs common to those of others, each student has specific personal needs. These grow out of ambitions,

[2] Not included are the youth who have completed senior high school but are not enrolled in a junior or community college.

[3] R. Basler, "Life Adjustment Education for Youth: Commission to Develop Program for Universal Secondary Education," *School Life,* 30: 3–6, November, 1947.

desires, handicaps, attitudes, feelings, talents, interests, and individual behavior patterns. These, too, should be met by the secondary school. The varying needs of youth can be met only in ways appropriate to the scheme of social living and to the level of maturity, interest, and aptitude peculiar to individuals. It is through meeting the needs of all youth that secondary education can fulfill its obligation to society.

Traditional versus Democratic Teaching in Secondary Schools

Although isolated cases of democratic teaching may be cited within the traditional pattern of secondary school, they are rare. The characteristics of traditional and democratic teaching in secondary schools are contrasted as follows:

Traditional Teaching in Secondary Schools	Democratic Teaching in Secondary Schools
1. Strives for mastery of organized facts related to basic fields of knowledge.	1. Attempts to develop attitudes, understandings, and behavior patterns appropriate for democratic living.
2. Prepares for college.	2. Prepares for life in a democracy.
3. Teaches subject matter as an end in itself.	3. Utilizes subject matter as a functional means to the end of successful living.
4. Considers memorization and retention of facts as an end in learning.	4. Tries to develop power of thinking and component behavior changes as an end in learning.
5. Provides for learning through abstract, vicarious experiences.	5. Provides for learning through actual first-hand experiences related to the life of a community.
6. Emphasizes mental discipline and mind training.	6. Emphasizes interaction of the whole individual with his environment.
7. Develops the habit of conformity to adult dictation.	7. Develops the habit of self-direction and self-motivation in terms of consciously shared group purposes.
8. Develops an attitude of competition.	8. Develops an attitude of cooperation.

Traditional Teaching *(continued)*	Democratic Teaching *(continued)*
9. Demands conformity to routines and to teacher direction in learning.	9. Develops individual initiative, creativeness, and ability to direct one's own growth and learning.
10. Requires pupils to take courses that adults have decided are "good" for them.	10. Provides guidance in helping students decide upon goals and appropriate experiences through which to attain them.
11. Emphasizes learning experiences adapted to verbalistic intelligence only.	11. Provides a variety of learning experiences that meet individual differences in amount and kinds of ability.
12. Promotes the idea that young people should "do as they are told" until they reach maturity when they will be able to "do as they please."	12. Encourages young people to accept increasing responsibility for decision-making, planning, self-discipline, and evaluation and acceptance of consequences of action.
13. Continues even in junior college to direct activities of students.	13. Strives to develop in 18- and 19-year-old youth independence of thought and action that will enable them to take their places as competent adult citizens.
14. Allows no expression of individual opinions—no disagreement with teachers or textbooks.	14. Dignifies young men and women by accepting their points of view and respecting their opinions.
15. Depends upon knowledge of subject matter.	15. Depends upon knowledge of those taught.
16. Motivates learning artificially.	16. Motivates through genuine interests.

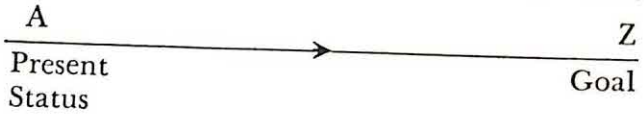
It would be revealing to the reader to recall the kind of teaching he experienced while in secondary school and to attempt to classify its various phases as traditional or democratic. Perhaps we should use the term "autocratic" rather than traditional and examine traditional teaching to determine if it has been more often autocratic than democratic.

Democratic Teaching Is Guidance

The kind of society in which teaching is conducted determines the type of teaching that should be sponsored if that society is to

continue. A democratic society cannot depend upon autocratic teaching and direction to further its purposes. It can rely only upon democratic teaching or guidance to insure its continuance.

Guidance helps students to reach goals. If the student is to be guided in his progression from A, where he is, to Z, where society wants him to be, it is the function of the teacher to furnish such guidance and to assist the student in his going from A to Z. All factors that influence the individual in going from A to Z may be called his *curriculum*. Leading the student or guiding him as he



makes the transition from A to Z is *teaching*. "How" the teacher guides his going—his behavior changes (his learning)—is *method*. His behavior changes along the way (learning) are *objectives*. He may change in attitude, understanding, level of skill, appreciation, emotional stability, and in many other ways, but his going is a unitary process and should result in his reaching Z as quickly and efficiently as possible. It is the *method* used that is most important in furthering this transition. A poor choice of method may cause the student to reach undesirable goals. A method that is not democratic, for example, may result in the student's arriving at autocracy rather than democracy.

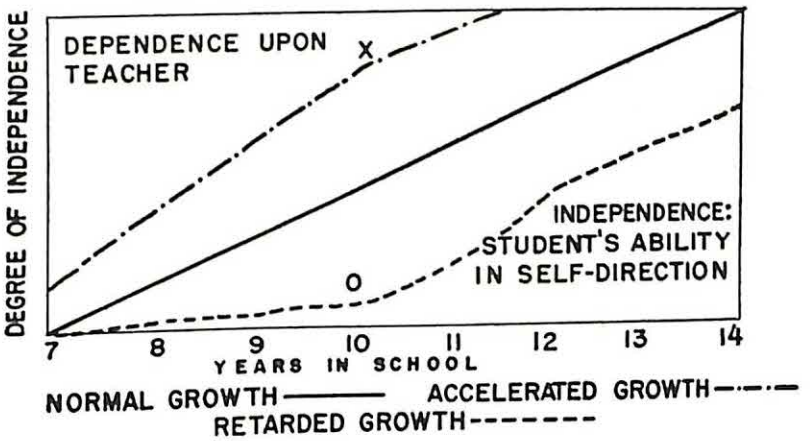
A student lacking sympathetic and understanding guidance may wander off the main track between A and Z to follow a direction that leads him out of school. Unwise teaching may be the determining factor. When it is less attractive or less satisfying than outside influences, teaching, itself, may cause the student to fail to reach the goals acceptable to society. Democratic teaching can assist the student as he travels through the curriculum to arrive at independence as a functioning democratic citizen.

Relation of guidance to student growth. The path between A and Z may not be straight or level. It may require much deviation, surmounting of many obstacles, or the retracing of some steps in order to get back on the right track. Its direction depends upon needs of the student for guidance and our success as teachers in guiding the student toward the proper objectives.

Figure 1 presents graphically the theoretical progress of the student toward the goal of independence. The vertical line suggests the degree of independence (in terms of the age levels passed through in the secondary school) that normal growth will follow. Accelerated and retarded growth patterns are represented by the

FIGURE 1

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN DEPENDENCE AND INDEPENDENCE DURING THE SECONDARY SCHOOL YEARS



broken and dotted lines respectively. Normally, the student enters junior high school with some degree of independence and self-determination, and he continues through the consecutive eight years making steady progress toward becoming independent. During the secondary school years the need for self-direction becomes greater and greater. Prior to this period all students will have learned to modify behavior to the end that adjustments were made to environmental influences and in so doing may have begun the development of self-direction. But during adolescence students are expected to become gradually more and more independent in order that they may contribute to the improvement of the quality of life in their society.

The broken line in Figure 1 represents the rate of growth toward independence of the accelerated student—one who comes from the elementary school with characteristics of independence already being developed and growing at an accelerated rate. If he should drop out of school at X, the age of 15 or 16, his chances of becoming an independent, contributing member of a democratic society are high. If on the other hand, as represented by the dotted line in Figure 1, the student is retarded—not mentally, but in growth toward independence—when he enters junior high school, and experiences a slow rate of growth, he will not have reached a degree of independence necessary for successful participation in our society even when he has been in school fourteen or fifteen years. He should be encouraged, however, to remain in school, not discouraged by the classification of "failure," since he will be mak-

ing progress toward the desired goal. He needs the benefits the school has to provide. If he should drop out of school, say at 0, he will become a burden to society, a misfit, an unhappy and insecure individual. He may never be able to contribute to the ends of democracy or to enjoy its freedoms. He will be hampered by ignorance, fear, lack of adjustment, inadequate social skills, and emotional insecurity. He can easily become a member of a group that is directly opposed to democratic living.

The role of teaching as a process of guiding growth comes to focus upon the problem of increasing the amount of independence that individual students are able to assume. This goal can be achieved through teaching procedures that place emphasis upon guiding the student in the process of developing skills and habits of self-direction.

Summary

The points of view and assumptions presented in this chapter indicate the type of ideas to be developed in relationship to democratic teaching in secondary schools. A comparison of traditional and democratic teaching should have made the reader aware of reasons why the products of secondary schools have not become democratic. Illustrations in the section concerned with teaching as guidance indicate a need for such teaching. Secondary education should help youth to become socially minded citizens capable of taking their place in community life, trained in democratic living through active participation in democratic practices. Such an experience is possible under the guidance of democratic teaching.

The theme to be developed in this book is that all youth in a democracy need to develop democratic feeling, thought, and action, and that only in secondary schools providing democratic teaching can this development take place.

Part 1

TEACHING IN A DEMOCRACY

Chapter 2

TEACHING AND SOCIETY

What determines the nature and character of teaching? . . . What are the basic purposes of teaching? . . . What is the social responsibility of teaching? . . . What social needs provide direction for teaching? . . . In what ways does society influence teaching? . . . How does teaching exert influences upon society? . . . What forces may cause teaching to fail in its purposes? How may teaching inhibit social progress? . . . What influences have contributed to the development of democratic ideals? . . . What are the characteristics of a democratic society? How may teaching for a democratic society be defined? . . . What competencies do teachers need for teaching in democratic schools? . . . Why is it urgent that teaching for democracy be improved?

Teaching receives its impetus, direction, and form from the over-all ideals, mores, and accepted behavior patterns of the society in which it exists and whose purposes it serves. Neither teaching nor the learning it seeks to encourage takes place apart from a system of living. The existing theory of life, or social setting, furnishes the need for teaching. To the society for which it exists, teaching must look for direction—for values sought, for acceptable means of achieving ends, and for appraisal of its worth. Society, on the other hand, must look to teaching for the interpretation, improvement, and perpetuation of its adopted and cherished ideals and concepts of group living. Inescapably, teaching and society are interrelated. The more clearly this interrelationship is recognized and understood, the more effectively will teaching discharge its social responsibility to the end that the society itself will be strengthened.

Individuals have long sought to perpetuate through teaching the established beliefs, attitudes, knowledges, understandings, and skills that have seemed to make life in their particular group more

meaningful and worthwhile. From time to time, however, man has attempted to improve his pattern of living by changing the character of teaching provided for the young. As groups become more complex, individuals seek security and integration within a larger and more complicated social organization. As a result, man increases his efforts to guarantee that suitable teaching adapted to the ideals of the larger social group be provided for the young in order that security and happiness may be assured. These attempts to insure appropriate teaching for youth of a society have led to development of varied systems of education, each designed for and dedicated to the perpetuation of its accompanying social existence.

A recent example of the extent to which a society will go in order to insure for its young a type of teaching compatible with its own particular ideology is that developed and controlled in nazi Germany just prior to World War II.[1] Another illustration is found in the pattern of teaching now being provided under state control in communistic Russia.[2] Extensive efforts in the United States, Great Britain, Mexico, and numerous other nations to extend the privilege of learning and benefits of teaching to all young people are supported largely by this same desire.

How Society Influences Teaching

Society depends for its improvement and continuance upon the development of attitudes, habits, understandings, skills, and knowledges that result in appropriate behavior. Guiding changes in established behavior patterns of individuals within a social group supplies to teaching its primary purposes. In order for teaching to guide such behavior changes in the proper direction, it must conform to the ideals of acceptable living endorsed by the society.

Every cohesive social group is the product of the needs and desires of individuals who compose the group. When selected members of a society seek goals that are not being met by the larger pattern of living, they organize subgroups designed to fulfill such purposes. Such subsocieties may be organized to meet needs of financial security, political ambition, cultural improvement, or personal acceptance that seem to be neglected or ignored by the over-all social machinery.

The divergent subgroupings that develop in a larger group

[1] Gregor Zeimer, *Education for Death; The Making of the Nazi.* New York: Oxford University Press, 1941, 209 pp.

[2] George Counts and Nucia P. Lodge (translators), *I Want to Be Like Stalin* (from the Russian Text on Pedagogy by B. P. Yesipox and N. K. Goncharov). New York: The John Day Company, 1947, 150 pp.

create many cross-currents of pressure, all seeking to influence the developmental pattern of the total society. Some spring from desires to achieve special privileges for vested-interest groups. A few represent protests against the weaknesses existing in the social structure. Still others may be based upon contradictory theories of living. Yet all must be harmonized within the broad pattern of life accepted by the parent society if the group itself is to survive.

Social needs. For the resolution of internal conflicting drives society must depend primarily upon its program of education and the quality of teaching. The broad fundamental needs that form the common matrix of social unity provide immediate and continuous direction for teaching.

1. The need for the "good life." Important to the formation of a social group is man's desire to live more fully and happily, either immediately or in the future. By joining with other human beings he seeks to obtain more readily certain comforts, such as food, clothing and shelter; the feelings of security that come from knowing he has help in withstanding danger; and the satisfactions derived from co-operative activity. Individually and collectively, human beings continually seek to learn better ways of living. Every type of social organization is defended on the grounds that it provides a greater amount of the comforts of living to more people. Having developed a pattern of living that yields satisfactions in terms of the fulfillment of fundamental needs, man seeks to teach his children its value and the means of its attainment.

Teaching and education are influenced directly by the concept of the "good life" existing within the society of which they are a part. In a totalitarian society the "good life" is promised to those who give unswerving, unquestioning obedience to superior authority, to those who serve the needs of the sovereign state first and those of the individual secondly. Teaching in such a society has the responsibility of developing the habit of obedience to a ruler, the feeling of insignificance as an individual, contempt for the weak, and willingness to die for a supreme authority. In contrast, the achievement of the "good life" in a democracy is best accomplished through the power of group thinking and action, through neighborly co-operation, through shared projection of goals, planning of procedures, and co-operative evaluating to the end that all may enjoy a higher standard of living. A democratic society, therefore, needs a type of teaching that emphasizes and provides opportunities for the development of individual initiative based upon attitudes and habits of co-operation, self-discipline, and objectivity of thought and action.

2. Desire for perpetuation. When an effective pattern of living has been established in a social group, effort is made to preserve and to extend its benefits for future generations. Man's continual struggle against hunger and cold, disease, the elements of nature, as well as against his human enemies has made him realize the necessity for teaching his children all of the knowledges, skills, and techniques of application that he has found useful in living. In addition, human beings, possessed as they are with the power of thinking, attempt to convey to their young the results of intellectual discovery. Thus beliefs, attitudes, opinions, and superstitions as well as accepted theory became a part of the heritage that is transmitted to future generations.

3. Need for improvement. Society turns to education for creative improvement. Teaching must serve the function of helping translate the heritage of the past into more effective living in the present.

It must also help man to anticipate his needs for the future and to seek effective means of meeting them.

When the first atomic bomb was released over Hiroshima, and people throughout the world attempted to comprehend its magnitudinous consequences, realization emerged that unless human beings improved their abilities and techniques of living together, they would be destroyed. Man's own genius had given him an instrument for destroying civilization. The attainment of the "good life" is not to be found in international conflict but rather in peaceful compromise and co-operation. Upon teachers and their teaching throughout the world rests the major responsibility to meet the challenge to achieve improvement of techniques for the realization of man's co-operative activity.

Cross-currents of social conflict. Social conflicts account largely for the differences in purposes and procedures in teaching found in various nations of the world. Countries that are striving to achieve the democratic way of life are influencing the development of a type of teaching that accords sincere respect to the individual and which seeks to develop—within the framework of co-operative living—individual differences in attitudes, knowledges, skills, and purposes.

Teaching in a democracy emphasizes expression of creative impulses, development of independent thought, self-discipline related to group objectives, and co-operative group planning. Nations influenced by despotic concepts of life strive on the other hand to develop a type of teaching that encourages the growth of qualities that discourage creativeness and thwart independent thinking.

Cross-currents in the form of contradictory social theories influence social progress and, consequently, teaching. Often social subgroups, organized for various purposes, seek to influence the interpretation of the goals toward which teaching is directed so that the purposes of the subgroup rather than those of the total society are served.

Within a society striving for democracy it is not unusual to find examples of teaching that unconsciously pay their allegiance—in terms of attitudes they encourage, procedures they employ, and values they seek—to despotism. Cross-currents of social conflict that influence teaching within a society may be kept active by those who hold divergent economic, political, or religious beliefs, by those who seek security in joining forces with others in "better than thou" groups, or by those who seek special privilege, unfair advantage, or the protection of personal interests. The total effect of a pressure group of this sort on the type of teaching provided for the young serves to retard development of true democracy.

Some groups openly seek to provide a particular type of teaching for their children by maintaining private schools dedicated to specific purposes. Others attempt, particularly in a democratic society, to accomplish their ends by influencing the teaching provided in public schools. Symptoms of such efforts are to be found in the concern evidenced over the teaching of controversial issues, in contradictory opinions regarding school discipline, pupil guidance or curriculum content, as well as the general outcome of education.

Subservience to tradition. The social force that most obviously influences the character of teaching in a given society is the tendency to seek security by following tradition. Pupils, parents, and teachers all feel more at ease when teaching is conducted in traditional ways. Frequently the traditions that originally gave birth to a teaching procedure are completely out of touch with the theory of life currently cherished by a social group. In American schools the only source for the pattern of teaching many of us follow is "the way in which we ourselves were taught."

Occasionally we become conscious of the conflict that exists between traditional authoritarianism in teaching methods and democratic ideals of self-discipline and co-operative action to the extent that on our own initiative we re-adjust our methods of teaching in the light of new guiding principles. But many of us are unaware that such conflicts exist. Our minds are closed to the recognition of malpractices in teaching because of the sublime faith we hold in the past. Many parents who will accept only the best and latest when buying a new automobile, an electric refrig-

erator, or a mechanical pencil are willing to purchase for their children a type of teaching that is inferior in quality and outmoded in terms of the traditions to which it pays allegiance.

Influence of Teaching on Society

The main function of education is that of helping to interpret, to improve, and to perpetuate the society which it serves. Every program of education organized by a social group represents an effort to accomplish certain goals. If the controlling social group places emphasis on such qualities as self-discipline, responsible freedom of choice, and individual and group initiative, it will expect the educational program to develop these traits in the young and thus perpetuate the ideals that have been commonly accepted.

Caution must be exercised to make sure that the ideals our teaching seeks to perpetuate are those associated with the theory of life that gives cohesion to the larger society. Otherwise, our teaching may inadvertently serve the ends of a social subgroup which supports ideals and practices partially or wholly in conflict with those of the over-all society. If teachers are successful in helping future generations to realize qualities demanded by the parent society, adjustment within the social group may be expected to improve.

Importance of teaching in American democracy. Just sixteen years after the Pilgrim Fathers arrived in New England, the first American secondary school was established. Within the next twelve-year period the people of Massachusetts agreed that the provision of education was a necessity if the ideals of the social group—those pertaining to religious freedom, largely—were to be realized. The history of American education is a fascinating story of the extension of educational opportunity to an ever-increasing proportion of the nation's youth.

Today teachers come into contact with more young people and associate with them more frequently than do any other social workers. Throughout the nation as a whole we teach seventy-three out of every hundred youth of secondary school age during a period which in terms of social competency, at least, may be characterized as the most significant in their lives.

During adolescence young people live together, solidify character traits, and develop enduring impressions of appropriate social habits. They find in school a pattern of living which they either accept as agreeable or reject as distasteful. If the school pro-

vides an environment that contributes to satisfactory social adjustments and pleasant experiences for all, youth may be expected to continue the same pattern of living outside school. The type of teaching within a school contributes more than any other single factor to the extent to which school experiences are welcomed by young people.

Role of teaching in social reconstruction. Social institutions engage in a continuous process of renewal. A society that neglects to give attention to the need for continuous growth and improvement is likely to perish. Yet within any social group there may be those subgroups which, as a result of special benefits derived from established practices or because of fear of change, pay allegiance to the *status quo* and resist efforts to improve techniques of living together. During World War II, even while American soldiers were fighting to defend a cherished way of life and to obtain a chance for more worthwhile living in the future, vested interests at home were demanding that effort be made to preserve social conditions just as they were prior to the war. They presumed that American soldiers wanted to come home to exactly the same kind of social order they had left when they went to war.

A little thought should remind us that before the acceleration of the economic cycle that grew out of the urgent need for war-time material, the United States, together with the rest of the world, was struggling to overcome the devastating near-collapse of our economic system in the "depression of the 1930's." Many of the young men who shouldered arms, manned ships, or piloted airplanes during World War II had spent their early years of manhood unemployed, unable to establish homes of their own, and unwanted by their social and industrial world. Yet even when confronted by this tragic memory there are many who oppose efforts to find permanent remedies for a sick society.

Society has in education and in teaching the means for self-improvement. Teachers must perform vanguard functions in spearheading the attack upon practices that are detrimental to the ideals of democratic life. This task may be accomplished by helping youth to practice and perfect habits of behavior, critical thinking, and problem solving; and to develop attitudes that are compatible with the democratic life. As teachers, we can render aid in social reconstruction by working with our own communities in re-evaluating the effectiveness of existing group life.

Teaching that inhibits social progress. Inadequate or unwholesome teaching may inhibit social progress in the following ways:

1. Serving authoritarian ends while existing within a democratic society. Unnecessary regimentation of pupils, arbitrary creation of social stratifications within the school or classroom (whether based upon intellectual, social, racial, vocational, or economic criteria), and determination of goals *for* instead of *by* pupils—all are effective examples of this practice.

2. Emphasizing attitudes and characteristics outmoded by modern conditions and needs.

3. Serving the ends of vested interests within a society.

4. Being so unrelated to life needs that youth develop in social situations insecurities which eventually lead to maladjustment.

5. Turning youth against school. When young people who feel unwanted in school develop distrust and dislike for one of society's major institutions, they may easily adopt similar attitudes toward society as a whole.

6. Seeking to achieve unreasonable and arbitrary standards. Many pupils unable to attain the satisfaction of successful achievement drop out of school and often become a hindrance to social progress.

The Democratic Society

The fundamental characteristics of a democratic society should be understood if we are to develop techniques of teaching that are adapted to democratic education. Frequently teaching fails to serve its function because we are affected by confused, inconsistent, and, at times, contradictory concepts of the ideals of democratic living. Such confusion is typical of the misconception concerning the meaning of democracy.

In recent years it has been suggested that democracy, rather than being a "way of life," is a "way of *coming at* life," or a *"way of trying to live."* This thought implies that on-going, developmental, ever-changing aspects of a pattern of living grow directly from the continuous interaction of human beings with each other. In a despotic society the patterns of detailed procedure for life are determined in advance and made expressly clear to those who must follow directions issued by those in authority. In a democracy, on the other hand, no ironclad rules which tell people what to do under novel circumstances are provided; instead principles of living are identified which, when applied, suggest appropriate "approaches" to setting up goals, planning activities, and evaluating results to the end that improved living is accomplished. Demo-

cratic living demands constant application of principles to operational situations. It places emphasis upon the development and preservation of congenial human relationships. Although democracy concedes to no selected few the divine right to make decisions for others, those who are confused about the direction of progress may become all too willing to forfeit the privilege and dodge the responsibility of deciding for themselves. Some may be willing to relinquish individual freedom for a way of life that gives specific directions and orders concerning how to live, one that *seems* to provide all the correct solutions to the problems of living.

Social groups do not achieve quickly or easily the goal of democratic living. Although a group may reach a high level of development by improved techniques of living together, it may encounter considerable difficulty when it attempts to transmit the results to future generations. Each generation is made up of new individuals who, while being more like than unlike their forefathers, yet differ sufficiently to make it necessary for them to work out their own application of recognized principles of living.

Growth of the democratic ideal. History of the growth of the ideals of democracy, like the story of modern Christianity, is a story of the struggle for "human-ness" in living. It is no accident that man's religious beliefs and his developing theories of an approach to living should reveal deeply rooted similarities. Principles of democratic living are deeply imbedded in many doctrines supported by *Christianity*. As man sought explanations for the phenomena of life about him, as he tried to promote his own security by identifying principles of human behavior appropriate to life, he also attempted to translate into practice his growing ideals of human relationships. As he came increasingly to accept the religious laws of "Do unto others as ye would that they do unto you" and "Love thy neighbor as thyself," he began to search for a way of life that would not only permit but also encourage such practices. Efforts to translate religious ideals into functional social living have contributed significantly to the growth of democratic theory.

Another strong source of influence upon democratic ideals is that of *science*. Much that has been learned from scientific investigations concerning the mysteries of nature and human living has helped man to dispense with superstitions and fears that previously controlled and limited his behavior. The divine right to rule, the inherent superiority of one race as compared to another, the belief that might makes right, the theory of predestination that holds

that the pattern of life is determined by divine powers—are all principles of living, once generally accepted, that have failed to stand in the face of scientific investigations.

Science has given man the power to open the medicine bags of superstition and prejudice in order that their contents may be revealed for what they are—fear based upon ignorance, greed springing from insecurity, and lust for power rooted in feelings of inferiority. From science the theory of democracy has acquired the techniques to search for truth. It has also gained the willingness to permit scientifically discovered truths to speak for themselves unhindered by emotionalized rationalizations. The ideal of democracy has taught man to free life from futile fatalistic concepts, thereby achieving the realization that man's living with man is a sociological process controlled largely by man himself. To a large extent man has the power to make for himself what he would like life to be. Through science man learns that he personally has the strength; through co-operative action he establishes for the human race the essential freedoms—freedom from fear, from want, freedom to worship, and freedom of speech. But just as man has the power to achieve freedom, he also has the power to destroy it.

A third contribution to the growth of the democratic ideal comes from *philosophy*. As man improved his powers of thinking, as he tested the hypotheses that guided his relationships to other men, as he predicted through intellectual projection the consequences of proposed patterns of living, he came to realize that a human being can survive in a complicated world only if he learns to live peacefully with his neighbors.

From philosophy, as well as from religion, man has selected the principles of group living that give direction to the application of the discoveries of science. It is from philosophy that man has gained power to give logical interpretations to his own behavior. To philosophy the democratic ideal owes its parentage. The democratic way of life draws its support from logic. In democratic living, man does not ask, "What is my divine right?" or "What have I the power to enact?" Instead he asks, "What action will be of most benefit to myself and to my fellows?" and "What long-term consequences of this course of action may be anticipated in terms of human happiness and the betterment of living?" Philosophy gives man a basis for estimating the extent to which a given course of action will contribute in the present and is likely to contribute in the future, to improvement of human living.

Modern pioneering. Throughout the ages, bigotry, selfishness,

vested interests, intolerance, special privilege, and tyranny have operated in the direction of subjecting the masses of humanity to the will of the few. But man has continually sought to achieve increased individual freedom by throwing off the yoke of oppression. Not infrequently has man's struggle to establish a way of life in which he might enjoy the comforts of a reasonable standard of living, the right of self-determinism, and the happiness that springs from individual freedom, been consummated upon the field of battle. In each instance, after the tyranny of despotic control has been overthrown, man has sought to work with others to establish a way of life that would guarantee security for himself and for his children against the recently defeated enemy. Always the struggle continues. Men who have won the right to live in freedom must continue to guard with diligence the privilege.

No social theory can be successfully defended solely by philosophical arguments nor even by the process of waging defensive warfare. The most nearly impregnable defense that can be erected in behalf of a social process is the bulwark of the success it achieves in operation. Man's ideals of democratic living are best defended by continually successful attempts to refine the techniques of living and by vigorous efforts to extend the benefits of democracy to more and more people. It is true that democracy, more than any other pattern of living, cannot stand still. Since, basically, it lives or dies in the hearts and minds of men, democracy must continually improve, or perish. Its influence and social benefits must be extended even to those who have not yet experienced democratic living. It is in defense of this truth that the quality of teaching provided by society plays its major role.

The most outstanding example of an attempt to create a society dedicated to democratic living is that which exists in the United States. The early pioneers who sought a better way of living in a new and mysterious land were people who loved freedom and hated oppression. Favored with opportunity to live in a land of plenty, confronted with natural hazards that made co-operative living a necessity, and privileged to enjoy freedoms that were unknown to their fathers, it is little wonder that they transmitted to their descendants a willingness to fight for the right to maintain the new privileges they had gained.

During the century and a half that preceded the American Revolution the ideals of democracy were encouraged to grow and mature to such an extent that they became able to furnish the matrix out of which a new social order was born. Since this beginning,

American democracy has been continuously engaged in a struggle to defend itself against the opposition of contradictory and conflicting ideologies. The defense of democratic ideals has been conducted by means of philosophical reasoning and scientific research, at times by actual warfare, but most of all through efforts to improve the principles and techniques of democratic living, and to extend their benefits to a greater and greater number of people.

Social conflict in a struggle for world harmony. With the utilization of the tremendous discoveries of science in the realms of transportation, communication, and industrialization has come a corresponding necessity of international co-operation. No longer can a nation be content to develop a pattern of living which excludes and ignores the problems faced by the rest of the world. Modern science has reduced the world in terms of intergroup relationships and ideologies to a size no greater than that of the United States seventy-five years ago.

As a result of modern technological developments theories of living are thrown into sharp contrast; the welfare of people in America or in Japan is directly dependent upon the application of the economic laws of supply and demand on a world-wide basis. Despotic ambitions, once satisfied within the realm of national and continental boundaries, now seek realization on a world-wide basis. Conflicting ideologies of life are no longer confined to the location of one national social group. Within any nation which permits freedom of thought and political action, many contradictory theories of living are advocated and supported.

In striving to protect itself against injurious theories of life, democracy must turn to education as its major defense.[4] Upon teachers and the process of teaching rests the responsibility for helping to identify and accept those principles of group interaction compatible to democratic living. Through the provision of schools a democratic society continuously seeks to refine the techniques of group living that each new generation of citizens will employ. Through teaching it helps each new group of citizens to recognize the weaknesses and strengths for life in such a society so that they, too, will make an effort to correct its weaknesses and to preserve its strengths.

Tenets of democratic living. Democracy is more than a political organization; it is an approach to life itself. Like other social ideologies it gives support to the theory that if all adhere to common principles of living, life will be enhanced. Unlike other

[4] For an expansion of this point see James B. Conant, *Education in a Divided World*. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1948, 249 pp.

theories of living, it depends for its continuance upon the voluntary acceptance by the members of the society of the principles of living that govern and give direction to co-operative group interaction. And, unlike other ways of life, democracy accepts as a guide those principles of living that lead to extension of happiness and well-being to the greatest number of the members of the social group.

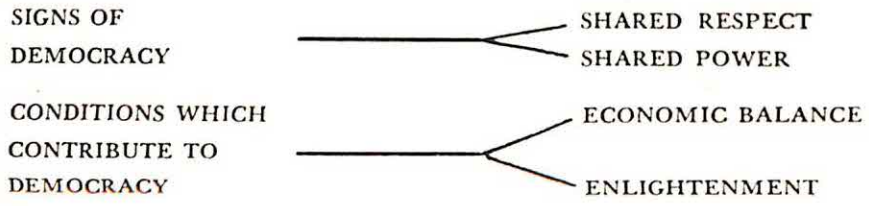
What, then, are the tenets of democratic living which have been commonly accepted by a significant majority of the citizens of the United States and which have guided the growth and development of this country? Upon what concepts of living is life in American democracy, or any other democracy for that matter, dependent? What conditions must be present in a society in order for democratic life to flourish? The answers to these questions have a direct bearing upon the quality of teaching which should be provided for future generations of American citizens.

Many conflicting opinions exist relative to an acceptable definition of democratic living. In the name of democracy almost every conceivable social practice is defended. In the name of democracy, people whose skin is not white are segregated and made to feel that they are members of inferior races. In the name of democracy vested interests seek to gain control of the nation's economic wealth. Likewise, in the name of democracy we often teach in a manner that permits only those who possess the same type of verbal ability we possess to be successful in school, thus excluding from educational institutions many young people who possess by nature differences in aptitudes and interests. In the name of democracy school systems are organized and instruction carried on in ways which encourage the development of blind obedience to authority rather than self-discipline based upon an appreciation of the principles of democratic living.

Recently a group of people, all recognized authorities in such fields as sociology, philosophy, science, religion, history, education, political science, and government, were called together at the University of Chicago under the auspices of Encyclopedia Britannica Inc. and asked to prepare a definition of democracy which would represent the consensus of the group and one which could be readily understood by the lay citizen. After several meetings and much discussion the following characterization of a democracy was agreed upon.[5]

[5] A pictorial presentation of the thinking of this committee is presented in two reels of sound motion pictures entitled *Democracy and Autocracy*, produced and distributed by the Encyclopedia Britannica Films Inc., Wilmette, Illinois.

In any democratic group
can be found the following:



It was the feeling of this group of citizens that the two signs, *shared respect* and *shared power,* are characterizations of democratic life. When they are absent, democracy cannot exist; when present, the degree to which they are utilized in the total life of the society determines the quality of living possible. The extent to which a social group is living democratically can be ascertained by examining the degree in which these two qualities exist among the members of the group.

1. Shared respect. Democratic living is characterized by the quality of shared respect, the mutual appreciation of the importance of each individual to the welfare of the group. This quality implies respect for the worth of every individual and of his contribution to the scheme of life. It recognizes the welfare and happiness of every individual as a paramount goal in a democratic society. It is for this purpose that the social organization exists. Without shared respect, oppression, discrimination, and tyranny are inevitable.

2. Shared power. In a democracy, individual citizens share the power to make decisions which affect their personal and group welfare. This quality is popularly recognized in the right to vote. Expanded to a broader operational level it functions in all aspects of democratic living. In practice, a democratic society permits no decisions which affect others to be made unless those affected share in making decisions. When only a few participate in decision making, when individuals are discouraged from sharing responsibilities, a fundamental characteristic of democracy is lacking.

Two contributing conditions to the qualities of shared respect and shared power, two symptoms that democracy exists in a community, were identified as functional aspects of a definition of democracy. These conditions are *economic balance* and *enlightenment.* These factors serve as social thermometers since they indicate the extent to which democratic living is present in a given social group. The higher the degree of economic balance and

enlightenment in a group, the greater the possibility that the qualities of democratic living are present.

1. Economic balance. Democracy is unlikely to thrive in a society in which the wealth is concentrated in the hands of a few while the majority of its citizens are forced to endure subnormal standards of living. The democratic society seeks to help all individuals achieve the "good life" of decent standards of living, including health, food, clothing, shelter, and adequate educational, cultural, and recreational opportunities. A society in which men are unemployed, or employed at inadequate wage standards, is not likely to achieve a high quality of democratic living. That social group which is continually moving in the direction of helping all its citizens progress toward the middle-income group, with consequent reductions of the numbers found in the "substandard" income class, is moving in the direction of providing a condition favorable to democratic living.

2. Enlightenment. Without the condition of *enlightenment* there is little likelihood that the democratic qualities of *shared power* and *shared respect* can be achieved. A social group which denies to its members a knowledge of the truth is moving away from the goal of democracy. Evidences of enlightenment are found in the extent to which instruments of public information and education, the press, radio, free public speech, schools, provide to every citizen accurate information. The degree to which all members of the group take advantage of opportunities to become informed is, likewise, evidence that democracy exists. When the press or radio is controlled by vested interests which suppress or distort information for their own purposes; when freedom of speech is denied; when inadequate educational opportunities are provided by the community and when books or other materials of instruction present distorted interpretations of true facts; when large numbers of people must rely upon a few for information and the interpretation of events; when public officials withhold significant knowledge—a necessary condition of democracy is lacking.

Teaching for Democracy

In accepting the challenge to teach for democracy, the teacher must face the task of evaluating all teaching in terms of its contribution to the ideals of democratic living. Although we have long given lip service to democratic ideals, and many have done outstanding jobs of helping youth grasp and live up to such ideals,

much confusion still exists with respect to the quality and character of teaching which is best suited to the goals of a democratic society. Many schools that purport to teach for democracy actually are still following undemocratic procedures and theories of teaching. They are still seeking goals of education which were prevalent in the schools copied from autocratic nations by our forefathers.

Compatibility between teaching and social ideals. Sociologists and students of education have long recognized that procedures should be compatible with the ideals of the society of which the educational institution is a part. Fascist societies excel in developing educational programs and teaching methods geared to their objectives. Likewise countries that adhere to the communistic doctrines of Karl Marx follow a similar course in developing educational programs to support their social philosophy. Although the United States leads the world in its efforts to provide education for all its youth, too little concern has been evidenced over the nature of the education provided. Americans believe in the value of education; every parent hopes that his child will complete high school and perhaps enter college, but few people are much concerned about the character and quality of education provided by our public schools. Although this faith in education has contributed to an extension of educational opportunities, it has also been responsible perhaps for the perpetuation of inadequate curricula and inappropriate techniques of teaching that tend to weaken the education provided.

Millions of American youth still strive unsuccessfully to meet the arbitrary academic standards of so-called college preparatory subjects in school environments which have little similarity to democratic living. Numerous studies have shown that many parents desire a different type of education from that now commonly provided. Teachers and school officials must assume responsibility for keeping schools abreast with the best thinking within their communities. A parent-opinion study completed recently by prospective teachers at The Ohio State University revealed that, as a group, the parents desire most that the secondary schools help their children to develop competence for living in a democratic society. The ideal of education held by these parents is far in advance of that held by educators in many American high schools who are still emphasizing the memorization of abstract subject matter on an individual basis and are providing few opportunities in school situations for young people to learn and practice the skills of democratic living.

Teaching: the practice of democratic leadership. The concept of the school as a *laboratory for democracy* seems appropriate in

terms of the over-all functions of democratic education. Teaching in such a school becomes a part of democratic living, and the role of the teacher is seen as that of a guide to the development of democratic ideals and behavior. Teaching may be defined, therefore, as *the practice of democratic leadership with developmental intent.* In democratic schools youth develop competence for democratic living through actual experiences in a school environment and in learning situations which are characteristically democratic. The teaching provided must of necessity be an outstanding example of democratic leadership in action. In order to perform such a role we, as teachers, need competence in the following three areas:

1. Social theory. We need to be intelligent students of society. We should keep well informed about the aims and objectives of significant social organizations of all kinds. We need to understand the social forces that affect behavior and know the principles and techniques of living that are most adaptable to group action in a democratic society.

2. Social practice. We need to be especially adept at employing techniques of democratic living. We should possess the kind of attitudes, social skills, and abilities that permit us to function democratically in social situations.

3. Social leadership. We need to develop competence as "social change agents" which permits us to function as leaders within groups of individuals concerned with co-operative action. Contrasted to teaching in an autocratic society, the emphasis in teaching in a democracy is on a suggestive form of guidance rather than on arbitrary direction; on assisting others to identify purposes, instead of superimposing goals on them; and on the maturing of human abilities and encouraging growth in terms of individual differences as opposed to developing conformity.

In a democracy teaching should represent the best interpretation of democratic living. It should demonstrate by example the pattern of life most appropriate for effective group interaction. Its goals should be based on psychological principles which indicate that the *way* in which learning takes place is extremely important when the development of attitudes, changes in behavior patterns, and permanence in learning are the objectives sought.

Summary: The Challenge for the Future

Citizens in a democracy must continually struggle to defend its existence in a world of many conflicting social ideologies. Teachers in a democracy have a special responsibility to further democratic

living. For the fulfillment of this function America looks to members of the teaching profession. The critical question which yet remains to be answered is: "Can secondary school teachers develop patterns and procedures of teaching that are compatible with and which give further extension and realization to the achievement of the ideals of democratic living?"

Already the philosophy of education appropriate for a democratic society has been given broad and numerous amplifications. Some attention has been given, also, to the democratization of school administration. Emphasis is also being placed upon reorganizing the secondary school curriculum so that it will better fulfill its function in a democratic society. Similarly, and closely related, are the developments in co-operative school and community relationships. But more crucial than all these movements is the need for developing a quality of teaching that will contribute, both by precept and example, to the goals of democratic living. In this direction lies a challenge for future teaching in our schools. If American democracy is to continue its successful growth, the schools must improve their principles and practices so that teaching will be dedicated both in theory and application to democratic procedures.

Related Experiences

1. Arrange for a showing of the following films. They will be helpful in developing understanding of the meaning of democracy and of the function of education in a democratic society.

Democracy (11 minutes: sound). *Despotism* (11 minutes: sound). Encyclopedia Britannica Films, Inc., Wilmette, Illinois. These two reels of film present a definition of democracy developed by a committee of experts for the Encyclopedia Britannica, Inc., and they illustrate ways in which the degree of democracy existing in a community or group may be measured. The reel *Democracy* identifies the signs and conditions of a democratic society. The second reel, *Despotism,* illustrates various ways in which these signs may be found in a typical community.

And So They Live (26 minutes: sound). New York University Film Library, 26 Washington Place, New York, 3, N. Y. An effective presentation of the relationship that exists between teaching and the life of the community, the unsatisfactory contrast between the learning exercises carried on in one school and the everyday life of its students within the home and the community is illustrated.

2. Use the following filmstrips to help develop a better understanding of mankind:

Man, One Family (57 frames: accompanying guide, 35mm., silent). Film Producers, Inc., 25 Broad Street, New York, N. Y.
Mankind is one family, made up of many groups, each with its own differences though no one group is superior. Dealing with problems of color, nationality, and religion, this film provides a splendid basis for discussion.

We Are All Brothers (60 frames: 35 mm.: silent). Film Producers, Inc., 25 Broad Street, New York, N. Y.
"Races of Mankind," by Ruth Benedict and G. Weltfish, is the basis for this film that deals with race problems. It points out the physical structure similarities of races and that language and customs are not determined by race. The contribution of fear and ignorance to intolerance is illustrated.

3. Evaluate the characteristics of your own learning experiences while in high school in terms of their contribution to skills for democratic living. Compare your evaluation with those of other members of your group.

4. Interview an experienced teacher by asking the following questions:

a. What influences tend to determine the method of teaching you employ?

b. In what ways do you consider that your teaching helps develop competence for living in a democratic society?

Compile and compare the results of interviews made by members of the class.

5. Arrange for each member of the group to observe a teacher in a nearby public high school. Attempt to identify the contributions to democratic living made by the teacher observed in terms of the provisions made for "shared power" and efforts directed toward the development of "shared respect."

6. Work together in conducting a parent opinion poll. Arrange for each member of the group to interview at least three parents. Ask the following questions:

a. What do you expect high school to do for your child?

b. What do you think is wrong with secondary school education today?

Compare the responses.

7. List the number of teachers you have had in all your school experience whom you consider possessed highly refined techniques of democratic living. Compare with lists of other members of your group.

8. Analyze your own high school experiences in an effort to identify the activities of teachers that helped you to develop competency for democratic living.

9. Compare practices in junior colleges with those in senior high

schools in relation to provisions for "shared power" and "shared respect."

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Chapter 3

NEEDED—A NEW TYPE OF TEACHING

What evidence supports the point of view that a new type of teaching is needed for secondary schools? . . . What kinds of teaching procedures being used today inhibit achievement of goals that contribute to the realization of democracy? . . . What weaknesses in American society indicate the need for improvement in teaching? . . . What steps are being taken to meet the need for a new type of teaching? . . . What are the "rights" of American youth with respect to the nature of teaching? . . . What trends are becoming more pronounced in pre-service programs of teacher education? . . . How may programs of in-service education contribute to the development of a new type of teaching? . . . What personal qualities should prospective teachers seek to develop? . . . What professional competencies are essential for teachers in democratic schools?

Although the American people have maintained a sublime, almost childlike, faith in the values of secondary education they have naively assumed that "anyone can teach." Vigorous efforts have been made to provide high school education for all youth, yet only nominal concern has been evidenced for the character of the education provided. Many persons are aware of the fact that teaching in American secondary schools falls far short of its major purpose—that of helping all young people develop appropriate values, attitudes, ideals, understandings, and the necessary and useful skills for democratic living. But in the face of this awareness, the American public, including teachers themselves, has been inconsistent in efforts to improve teaching. As a consequence, American democracy has not yet developed, except in a few isolated situations, the type of teaching appropriate to its needs. Even when democratic theories of teaching have been given successful implementation in experimental schools and the results

made available to teachers in public schools, we, in general, have evidenced little concern toward suggestions that we adopt democratic procedures of teaching.

Evidence of Need

Evidence of the need for improved teaching is to be seen on every hand. The two critical points where the evidence becomes most noticeable are: the behavior patterns existent within the social group; and the secondary schools themselves. The final test of teaching in a democracy must always be *how well do the products of the schools function as democratic citizens?* To measure the effectiveness of our traditional patterns of teaching we need only to examine the life about us. It is in the behavior patterns of the people that we find the clearest evidence of the need for a new type of teaching compatible with the purposes of our society.

Faulty conceptions of teaching. The very fact that the American people hold faulty conceptions of teaching is evidence that they should have had access to better teaching themselves. Some of our wrong notions may be stated as follows:

1. Teachers and lay citizens alike believe teaching is such a simple process that anyone can teach. We are unaware of the complexity of the teaching process.[1] Many of us believe that teaching consists merely of making assignments, hearing recitations, giving examinations, grading pupils, and keeping them orderly. Many persons believe that what is taught will be learned and practiced. We tend to believe, for example, that teaching children about democracy will result in their learning to live democratically.

2. Others have long held the misconception that *teachers are born.*[2] We have talked about "natural born" teachers; we have paid our respects to supposedly inherent teaching skill by permitting anyone with a bachelor's degree to teach, although he may have had only limited opportunity to develop the skills of teaching. Since we tend to believe that "teachers are born, not made," we consider it useless to do anything about developing better methods of teaching.

3. There exists in the United States a vigorous, almost militant, confidence in the value of mastering, or the temporary memorization of, nonfunctional subject matter as the method of preparation

[1] This point is illustrated in a discussion of the psychological aspects of the teaching process by Glenn Myers Blair in "The Psychological Interpretation of Teaching," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, 33:321–338, October, 1947.

[2] This position is taken by Jacques Barzun in *Teacher in America*. Boston: Little, Brown and Co., 1945, p. 17.

for teaching. We have believed that "he who knows his subject, can teach," yet we often hear students say, "he knows his stuff, all right, but he can't put it across to the students." Those who hold this misconception are probably influenced by the fact that there are actually few really skillful teachers and that many who endeavor to become so fail in their attempts.

"He who knows, can teach" expresses the idea that because anyone who knows a subject can teach it, there is little value in attempting to learn *how* to teach. No other point of view has been more detrimental to good teaching. Those who hold to this point of view look with disdain on the suggestion that teachers need to be taught how to teach. They maintain that an individual well versed in a subject will be able to teach it. When actual efforts fail, such teachers resort to arbitrary techniques for compelling pupils to learn, using ridicule, the threat of failure, or use of examinations and grades as means of motivation. When students are not interested enough to elect certain subjects, those who approach teaching from this point of view often seek to have their "pet" courses "required" of all students.

Particularly harmful have been the attitudes of many college teachers who, themselves, are products of programs of subject matter preparation and who are highly specialized in narrow fields of knowledge. They, in turn, seek security in the rationalization that because they know a selected body of knowledge, they are able to teach it. They believe that if they organize their lectures logically, intersperse jokes here and there to keep the students awake, and speak plainly and distinctly, they are doing a superior job of teaching—even in the face of a class of students who stay awake only if they have no friend to lend them a set of notes taken from last year's lectures. From the student's point of view, the only purpose for taking notes is to prepare for those mid-term and final examinations that have become ritualistic demonstrations of the inadequacy of this concept of teaching. Prospective teachers, frequently under the direct persuasion of their college professors, mistake such procedures for teaching. In the interest of good teaching we must recognize this misconception for just what it is—a defense of mediocrity.

Some progressive secondary schools and colleges are now attempting to improve teaching methods by in-service education programs designed to evaluate teaching. Several universities have instituted the practice of permitting students to evaluate the teaching to which they have been subjected. A major step was taken by the President's Commission on Education when it

condemned the conflict which has existed in teacher-education institutions over the relative merits of subject matter and professional education and advocated the position that teachers need both kinds of preparation.[3]

4. There is a tendency to think of the methodology of teaching as though it consisted of supplying the future teacher with a "bag of tricks" taught in "education" courses after he has mastered a subject-matter field. Even the study of "how to teach" frequently is presented as nonfunctional subject matter. Prospective teachers are forced to study *about* teaching and education instead of being permitted and encouraged to examine, try out, and perfect through supervised practice the skills necessary for teaching.

Frequently we are content with acquainting prospective teachers with superficial procedures employed extensively in secondary schools. Many of these devices have little foundation in the theories of democratic education and are concerned largely with isolated and unrelated techniques for conducting teaching. Teachers are taught, for example, that assignments should always be made at the beginning of the class period, that motivation can be enhanced through competition, that drills should be spaced, and that punishment must follow closely after the offense in order to be effective. The purposes of such teaching are usually conceived to be related to discrete subject-matter goals, and there is little concern for the functions of education.

5. A fifth misconception is based on a false notion concerning the outcomes of teaching. To those who emphasize verbalization of material learned by the *memoriter* process, the development of method by the teacher is unncessary. Faith in the procedure of requiring students to memorize abstract facts that frequently bear little or no relation to the society in which the students live, apparently is not shaken by the knowledge that these facts are of little concern to the student after the final examination has been passed. Failure to be concerned about such important objectives as the development of understandings, appreciations, skills of democratic living, and techniques of creative and independent thought is further evidence that those who hold this misconception, not knowing or caring whether these outcomes should be reached, share in the belief that development of method is extraneous.

[3] President's Commission on Higher Education, "Staffing Higher Education," *Higher Education for American Democracy*. Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, Vol. IV, January, 1948.

Lack of concern for teacher welfare. A contributing factor to the evidence of need for an improved type of teaching is the economic insecurity faced by most teachers. Under such conditions it becomes difficult for us to remain enthusiastic about the democratic way of life. A special effort must be made to place good standards of living within reach of those who teach the democratic way of life to the young. We cannot expect frustrated, insecure, and disillusioned teachers to be much concerned about helping young people learn to respect and cherish the democratic way of living. Teachers who are underpaid, overworked, and personally insecure are likely to be poor investments in the struggle to preserve and extend democracy. This condition can be overcome through sympathetic efforts of a citizenry that has been taught the necessity of better living conditions for teachers.

Community attitudes toward teachers. It is no secret that although education is recognized as a necessity in a democratic society, the teachers who make education possible have been held, until recently, in extremely low esteem by the American public. The repeated appeals during recent years, in the press and on the radio, for better working conditions, higher salaries, and increased respect for teachers emphasizes the seriousness of this assumption. Many individuals who have been educated in secondary schools show a deplorable lack of sympathy with teachers and their problems. The following expressions of these existing attitudes in relation to teachers and schools may help to explain this lack of sympathy and the consequent failure to support present types of teaching:

1. Teaching is so ill-adapted to the needs, interests, and aptitudes of students that many find themselves or their friends coerced by teachers into participating in learning experiences which to them are distasteful, boresome, and meaningless.
2. Teachers frequently seem to dominate pupils to the point that they rebel against the source of domination and experience a strong inward urge to retaliate against all teachers.
3. Unfair treatment of pupils who do not possess the skills and aptitudes to which teaching has paid its allegiance is a common experience.
4. Roughly, half the youth of our society has become so discouraged through failures, humiliating experiences, low marks, and feelings of inadequacy that this condition accounts to a large extent, for their failure to graduate from senior high school.

6. Emphasizing conformity to teacher-made regulations.
7. Emphasizing preparation for college as the major goal of high school instruction and stressing preparation for upper division courses in junior college teaching.
8. Denying pupils the privilege of working co-operatively in classroom situations.
9. Failing to direct school learning toward immediate and recognized needs of youth.
10. Using a single textbook to the end that absolute faith in a single authority is developed.
11. Emphasizing uniform standards.
12. Giving failing grades to pupils who do not keep pace with the progress of the group.
13. Failing to provide socializing experiences.
14. Failing to recognize behavior as symptomatic of pupil adjustment or lack of adjustment.
15. Failing to relate learning in school to life in the community of which the school is a part.
16. Emphasizing verbal experiences in school learning to the exclusion of audio-visual aids, experimentation, projects, and field trips.
17. Utilizing external pressures in promoting the display of acceptable overt behavior.
18. Failing to recognize the individual as a "whole" being.
19. Depending upon teaching procedures—day-by-day assignments, nonfunctional subject materials, and the like—which are based upon the theory of mental discipline designed to "train the mind."

Withdrawal from secondary schools. The phenomenal increase in high school enrollments since the turn of the century is a familiar story to all. By 1940, 70 per cent of the nation's 19½ million adolescent youth, ages 12 to 19 inclusive, were in school.[4] Ninety-four per cent of youth in the age group 12–14 were in school. Seventy-five per cent of the 15–17-year-olds attended high school. Twenty-seven per cent of the 18–19-year-old youth were attending high school, junior college, or were enrolled in a post-high school institution of one type or another. Approximately one-half of the nation's youth completed the twelfth grade and received a high school diploma. In any given year, however, approximately thirty out of every one hundred adolescents in America were not in school, and those who graduate represent only about 50 per cent of the survivors of this age group who started to

[4] Based upon the 1940 United States Census Report.

school together twelve years earlier. Of the 50 per cent who have dropped out of school prior to graduation, almost all have withdrawn during the secondary school years.

We have a picture, then, of a nation which believes in the benefits of education, one which provides schools for the purpose of helping all youth to develop the attitudes, understandings, and skills appropriate for democratic living. Yet we have a situation in which only approximately half the youth utilizes secondary schools completely through the twelfth grade and one in which only a small percentage continues in junior or community colleges or in other institutions through the fourteenth year, although it is estimated that 49 per cent of 18- and 19-year-old youth possess the ability successfully to complete junior college as this institution is now organized. Of the youth who attend or who graduate from senior high school and enter junior college, many possess antagonistic attitudes toward secondary schools and teachers. Does this mean that youth have no interest in learning how to live in their society? Probably not, since no other problem concerns them more. Possibly it is more indicative of the degree to which secondary education fails to meet the recognized needs of youth.

Another phase of the problem of withdrawal from school in relation to the need for a new type of teaching is the number of youth who fail in school. Each year a significant portion of high school pupils have the discouraging experience of receiving failing or low marks in the subjects which the school considers important. Many are compelled to repeat required subjects; some are eventually forced to withdraw from school because they cannot pass the subjects required for graduation. And for many students who do manage to receive passing grades this goal is accomplished only with a sense of discouragement and inferiority as a result of continuous competition with superior students.

Explanations given for the high percentage of drop-outs, for the negative attitudes of pupils toward school, and for the number of pupils who receive failing marks in subjects usually place a major share of the blame upon the inadequacy of the secondary school curriculum. But perhaps a more influential factor than the curriculum itself is the quality of teaching that translates the curriculum into action within the classroom. The *way* in which pupils are taught probably has more to do with their desire to continue learning, with their happiness in school, than *what* they are taught.

Commonly the curriculum is thought to consist of the subject matter taught—the course of study, the textbook, the supplementary readings, motion pictures utilized, field trips, and so on—and

5. Teachers tend to remain aloof from communities where they work and do not participate in normal social processes.

6. Many teachers become irascible and unpleasant in their relationships with students.

7. Teachers seek to hold youth to adult standards and fail to make suitable allowances for mistakes that children make in the natural process of growing up.

8. Teachers exhibit too much interest in subject matter fields, and not enough in getting acquainted with their pupils.

9. Many teachers are unwilling to accept pupils as they are, or to attempt to understand their feelings and ambitions as the pupils themselves see them. Instead, they are inclined to impose their own attitudes, moral values, patterns of thinking, and vocational considerations upon pupils.

These are serious criticisms, but there must be truth in many of them if the attitudes of those who have experienced teaching are at all well grounded. For a number of years one of the authors of this book has asked prospective teachers to indicate the number of teachers they have had whom they consider to be superior. Invariably the answer is the same. Most people can remember two or three; few can list more than six. Yet when a count is made the typical college senior has had from forty-five to one hundred twenty-five different teachers throughout his school experiences. It must be remembered, also, that the college student has been most favored by the type of teaching provided in American secondary schools. It is not unusual to find among those who have withdrawn from high school before graduation individuals who cannot name one single teacher who for them was a "good teacher."

Artificial goals of teaching. Evaluation of the effectiveness of secondary education must be made in terms of the social competence of the products of secondary schools. If teaching assumes responsibility for helping youth to develop appropriate attitudes and skills for democratic living, to what extent has it met this responsibility?

For the most part American secondary schools have been content to appraise their effectiveness in terms of temporary artificial values. The most cherished goal of teaching has been that of preparation for college—a goal that has led teachers to attempt to persuade or force pupils to master organized bodies of knowledge. Good teaching has been considered to be that which prepared youth for passing examinations in subject fields.

Perhaps more than any other single criterion, the success of

students in college entrance examinations and in college courses has given direction to teaching in secondary schools. In the light of the functions of secondary education we are beginning to ask, How effectively have high school graduates learned to live in the society of which they are a part? To what extent has teaching been concerned with developing attitudes and useful skills that carry over into actual living? In addition, we should ask, To what degree can the abilities that must be utilized in life outside the school be developed by secondary school teaching?

It is clear that there is a direct relationship between the goals of our teaching and the inadequacies found to exist in community living. A good case can be made for the statement that many of the skills of democratic living which are employed in American democracy are developed almost in spite of the school rather than because of it. We need only to look at the way in which pupils have had to develop, outside the school curriculum, activities which permitted them an opportunity to learn to live co-operatively. Such activities are frequently opposed or only halfheartedly supported by teachers. If significant changes are to be brought about in the social behavior within our society, it becomes imperative that goals of teaching be directly related to the problem of developing in school the attitudes and skills that are demanded for democratic living.

Weaknesses in teaching procedures. In order to understand fully the need for improving teaching we must examine the weaknesses in existing procedures and determine the ways in which teaching fails to achieve its function. If we wish to consider the situation realistically we should ask, What are the specific activities of teachers that inhibit achievement of the goals of democratic education? The following list of teaching procedures is not meant to be all-inclusive; it represents a sampling of questionable practices that are commonly found in typical schools:

1. Determining the goals of learning for pupils.
2. Emphasizing the memorization of subject matter as an end in itself.
3. Stressing intellectual or verbal competence as the major goal of secondary education and favoring pupils who possess a high degree of verbal ability.
4. Using individual competition as a motivational device for learning.
5. Grouping pupils in segregated class groups according to their measured intelligence.

the type of learning exercises provided. But the curriculum, in reality, must be defined as those experiences which result from a particular pattern of teaching. When the planned learning experiences are unrelated to youth needs, when the materials of instruction are not adapted to the wide variety of individual abilities, when the vocational interests of pupils are ignored by curricular provisions, youth will dislike school, will be unsuccessful, and will withdraw just as soon as they reach the age when they are no longer required to attend.

The community and the school. As a summary of the discussion of evidence of need for a new type of teaching as shown by conditions in the community and in the secondary school, the following comparison is presented to illustrate the extent to which the typical community uses the ideal skills of democratic living and the corresponding emphasis of the typical American secondary school:

Ideal Skills of Democratic Living	Typical Utilization Within Life of Community	Characteristic Emphasis in Secondary School Teaching
1. Willingness and ability to keep informed relative to social issues.	1. Little effort to keep informed; adults read about only one side of controversial issues, or listen to radio commentators who have similar views. Many depend upon others to tell them what to think.	1. Emphasis upon following a single authority—the textbook. Pupils answer questions with responses acceptable to the teacher. A fear of controversial issues is prevalent.
2. Ability and willingness to share responsibility for the formulation of policies which affect the common good.	2. Less than 50 per cent of eligible voters exercised this responsibility in the 1948 elections. In some states, as few as seven per cent of voters exercised the franchise.	2. Paternalistic attitudes require that all major decisions be made by the teachers.
3. Open-mindedness; willingness to see the other side of a question.	3. Deep-seated social conflicts exist because groups such as labor and management refuse to see both sides of problems.	3. Frequently only one side of a question is studied—that which is considered to be *right*.

Ideal Skills *(continued)*	Typical Utilization *(continued)*	Characteristic Emphasis *(continued)*
4. Skill in co-operative relationships.	4. People are unable to work together, many times for the common good.	4. Emphasis is on individual endeavors; very little opportunity to learn to work co-operatively on common problems.
5. Shared and mutual respect given to all.	5. Racial, religious, economic, political antagonisms prevalent.[5]	5. Emphasis upon class stratifications based upon verbal intelligence, a factor closely correlated with economic background. Segregated schools with segregation within schools.
6. Faith in intelligence as a method of solving problems.	6. Dependence upon the force of pressure groups in the solution of problems.	6. Pupils taught to memorize and remember rather than to investigate and think.
7. Skill in helping others achieve belongingness.	7. Numerous instances in which minority groups have been consistently persecuted.	7. The insecure are made more insecure through the use of modernistic "dunce caps"—segregation on the basis of ability to learn; the use of marks, failures and an arbitrary promotion system.
8. Ability to establish and maintain a home and to accept the responsibility of family living.	8. Typically one-fourth—one-third since World War II—of all marriages end in divorce; many homes which remain intact legally, actually are broken.	8. Little emphases upon education for family living. Practically no opportunity provided for sex education. Only nominal experiences in learning to live with each other.
9. Skill in democratic leadership;	9. Leaders after having been elected	9. Little opportunity for assuming

[5] Evidence related to this problem may be found in the report of the President's Committee on Civil Rights, *To Secure These Rights,* (Charles E. Wilson, Chairman). New York: Simon and Schuster, 1947, 178 pp.

Ideal Skills *(continued)*	Typical Utilization *(continued)*	Characteristic Emphasis *(continued)*
ability to function as a "change agent."	tend to assume autocratic powers adopting despotic procedures.	function as a leader in crucial situations.
10. Emotional stability and well integrated personal adjustment.	10. Problems of the mentally ill increasing annually.	10. Teaching stresses goals unrealistic to and often beyond the reach of pupils. Emphasis is upon conformity. Both procedures lead to frustrations and maladjustments for far too many pupils.
11. Skill in self-discipline.	11. Police discipline.	11. Teacher discipline; emphasis upon conformity to teacher-imposed regulations.
12. Willingness to abide by group decisions and regulations; respect for will of majority.	12. High rate of delinquency and crime. Even so-called law-abiding citizens rebel against decisions contrary to their personal interests.	12. Pupils not permitted to learn self-direction. Rigidity of teaching procedures, arbitrary goals, etc., tend to drive children out of school thereby causing them to feel unfriendly to one of society's major institutions.

It is not difficult to identify inadequacies in the community in relation to ideals of democracy nor to see how the schools fail to follow the ideals they emphasize. The characterization of the type of teaching needed, however, is a much more complex process. We have seen that the "goodness" or "badness" of teaching is qualitative and must be determined with respect to the needs of the particular society for which the teaching is being evaluated. No single teacher adheres rigidly to a given pattern or approach to teaching. Some may use commendable procedures at one time and less desirable approaches at another. The problem of developing patterns of teaching compatible with democratic ends becomes one of clarifying the meaning of democracy and the theory of democratic edu-

cation, as well as of translating the theory of democracy into classroom teaching procedures.

Meeting the Need

Already, efforts are under way to develop a new type of teaching for secondary schools. The crisis in public education created by the exodus of thousands of teachers from the teaching profession during the past ten years into more profitable and less trying positions in other fields has shocked the American public into the realization that emergency measures must be taken to preserve the public school system.

Consideration of teacher welfare. Throughout the nation teachers' salaries have been increased during the past ten years. There are indications that salaries will have to go even higher if the best teachers are to be retained in teaching, since in terms of purchasing power more than half the entire teaching profession earn no more today than they did in 1940. Citizens, however, have repeatedly expressed the desire to pay good teachers adequately. In addition to increasing teachers' salaries in an effort to maintain and improve the education provided for youth, many communities have indicated a willingness to expand the related perquisites of teaching. There seems to be increasing effort to provide for teachers working conditions that have been repeatedly requested by those who best know the problems of those in the profession. Sick leave with pay, reduced teaching loads, freedom to experiment with new educational methods, and the privilege of participating in the policy forming processes of school planning, the right to live private lives without restrictions are typical of the privileges which teachers share in better school systems.

Recognizing the rights of teachers and youth. An excellent example of the needs of teachers was incorporated in the following Bill of Rights formulated by Professor Raleigh Schorling of the University of Michigan: [6]

AN EVOLVING BILL OF RIGHTS FOR TEACHERS

1. *The right to teach classes that are not too large—in general from ten to twenty pupils.*
2. *The right to have time in the school day for planning.*
3. *The right to a 45-hour week.*

[6] Raleigh Schorling, "An Evolving Bill of Rights for Teachers," *Education*, 67:263–267, January, 1947.

4. *The right to an adequate amount of helpful and constructive supervision.*
5. *The right to adequate compensation for the full year of fifty-two weeks.*
6. *The right to have good materials and enough of them.*
7. *The right to work in a room that, with the help of the students, can be made pleasant and appropriate to the tasks to be learned.*
8. *The right to the same personal liberties which other respectable citizens assume for themselves as a matter of course.*
9. *The right to an externship (a period of on-the-job supervised preparation).*
10. *The right to a realistic program of in-service education.*
11. *The right to participate in modifying the curriculum and methods, and in formulating school policies.*
12. *The right to keep from being lost in the profession.*

These and related goals are being sought and gradually attained for teachers throughout the United States. But higher salaries, better working conditions, and greater respect can be achieved for teachers to the degree that a corresponding bill of rights is fulfilled for America's youth. Almost every community has demonstrated at one time or another its willingness to support teachers who make superior contribution to meeting the needs of its young people. Some of the "rights" for secondary school students are stated at follows:

BILL OF RIGHTS FOR AMERICAN YOUTH

1. *The right of all to develop skills of democratic living through experiences in a democratic school atmosphere and by actually participating in cooperative activities in school.*
2. *The right of all youth to have respect, security, and acceptance by teachers and by fellow students.*
3. *The right of all youth to achieve the satisfactions of successful accomplishment within the educational program of the school.*
4. *The right of all youth to educational experiences adapted to their personal and social needs, interests, ability to learn, maturation status, and rate of learning.*

5. *The right of all normal youth to graduate from senior high school.*
6. *The right of all normal youth to receive appropriate, continuing educational experiences at public expense until the completion of two years of junior or community college.*
7. *The right of youth to participate in educational experiences which are related to community needs and activities.*
8. *The right of all youth to adequate guidance.*
9. *The right of youth to participate co-operatively in the determining of their own educational goals, experiences, and the evaluation of their own growth.*
10. *The right of all youth to learn in the ways best suited to their interests and abilities.*
11. *The right of youth to learn to think independently, to make decisions for themselves, and to develop capacities for self-discipline.*
12. *The right of youth to be instructed by teachers who understand the full implications of the function of education in American democracy.*
13. *The right of youth to associate with teachers who possess healthy well-balanced personalities and a love and understanding of young people.*
14. *The right of youth to develop their own capacities and talents.*

Since the most valid basis for seeking improvement of the welfare of teachers is the necessity for improving the educational opportunities of youth themselves, such needs as those listed above must be met by teachers if communities are to be asked to take steps to improve the conditions of teaching. There is reason to believe, however, that as we develop a new type of teaching adapted to the needs of youth in a democratic society, effort to improve our own personal and professional welfare will be increasingly successful.

Improving preparation for teaching. Fundamental to the provision of a new type of teaching are the refinement and reorganization of procedures for recruiting and selecting prospective teachers, the program of pre-service education of teachers, and programs of in-service education provided for teachers on the job.

1. Recruitment and selection of prospective teachers. Institutions that prepare teachers are increasing their efforts to recruit the best prospects for the teaching profession. In the past, other

professions such as law, medicine, engineering, and scientific research have attracted our most promising youth while teaching has had to be content with those who either could not afford the extended period of preparation required for such professions as law or medicine or could not attain success in or even admission to such professional schools.[7] Many capable youth who are especially suited for teaching have also ignored the possibility of a career in teaching because of the low esteem in which teaching has been held by the American public and by teachers themselves.

If teaching competent to perform its important function in a democratic society is to be provided for youth, the ablest young people must be encouraged to consider teaching as a career. This is a responsibility first of all of teachers who have opportunity to know and to counsel secondary school youth at the time they are in the process of choosing careers. Recently a group of seniors in a high school in Colorado reported that none of their teachers had suggested to them teaching as a possible career. In a high school in Ohio, seniors reported that high school teachers not only did not encourage them to consider teaching as a career, but some teachers openly warned against their entering the profession. Such guidance procedures can only serve to weaken the profession and mitigate against improving the quality of teaching afforded young people.

Teacher-education institutions have the responsibility of encouraging prospective teachers for a new type of teaching. Most authorities agree that selection of prospective teachers should not be accomplished by arbitrary standards or according to academic screening devices, but rather through competent and honest guidance that helps young people to consider the type of teacher and teaching demanded by our society and to evaluate their own personal and professional qualifications for such responsibility. Guidance of this type should be continuous, beginning in the secondary school and extending beyond the initial placement of teachers.

2. *Improved programs of pre-service education.* Traditional patterns of teacher education have been inadequate and, at times, detrimental to the development of teachers competent for service in democratic schools.[8] Trends from traditional programs of pre-

[7] The College of Education of The Ohio State University recently prepared for this purpose an attractive booklet, *Look Into Teaching*. Columbus, Ohio: College of Education, The Ohio State University, 1948.

[8] The Commission on Teacher Education of the American Council on Education recently completed several extensive studies of ways of improving teacher education. Of particular interest will be *Teachers For Our Times*, published in 1944, 178 pp.; *Evaluation in Teacher Education*, 1944, 368 pp.; and *The College and Teacher Education*, 1944, 311 pp.

service education serve the purpose of indicating the kinds of teachers that institutions concerned with teacher education are attempting to develop.

TRENDS IN TEACHER EDUCATION

Traditional teacher education in institutions of higher learning.	New programs designed to develop teaching compatible with the needs of democratic schools.
1. All prospective teachers required to take a standard program of liberal education with first two years devoted to building a basic foundation of knowledge in several subject fields, followed by a major with one or two related minors in fields of knowledge, and climaxed by 18-24 semester hours of study in education "courses" in which the major emphasis is the learning *about* education.	1. Prospective teachers begin learning to teach during the first year in college and relate all learning to the goal of teaching. Students are helped to develop a broad understanding of the needs of man in his relationship to society and the most effective knowledge and skills necessary to the solution of personal and social problems. Emphasis in all phases of college work is upon teacher preparation. Professional study is concerned with actual experiences with and the study of youth in school situations.
2. All learning is organized into separate courses, each concerned with its own goals and logically organized bodies of knowledge. The mastery of subject matter is an end in itself.	2. Learning is centered around the needs of the prospective teacher. Separate bodies of knowledge are fused into large instructional units of "core courses" as means to ends.
3. Emphasis is placed on the development of competence in memorizing and reproducing ideas of others—in verbalizing.	3. Emphasis is placed on the utilization of knowledge to develop competencies such as ability to solve problems, to think objectively, to function effectively in democratic situations.
4. Single textbooks are utilized as the source of all knowledge in a given course.	4. Many varied sources of information are employed; a variety of books, actual experiences, visual aids, surveys,

Traditional *(continued)*	New *(continued)*
	and independent and group research.
5. The student works to achieve a high grade.	5. Prospective teachers strive to develop competencies for democratic living and teaching.
6. All evaluation is teacher evaluation.	6. Evaluation is personal, conducted by prospective teachers with the teacher serving as a guide.
7. Teaching method consists largely of lecturing by professors.	7. The teacher functions as a guide or democratic "change agent" helping prospective teachers teach themselves.
8. Prospective teachers are expected to master subjects and tricks of teaching that they will later employ in teaching.	8. Prospective teachers study communities and social groups, their needs and problems; children, and their growth and development; psychological principles of learning; and the techniques of social interaction.
9. Experiences with schools and children are provided in a single course during which prospective teachers are supposed to learn to apply the theory they have been learning, as well as teach subject matter to high school pupils during one hour per day of practice teaching for a quarter or semester.	9. Prospective teachers are continually relating theory and practice as they work with youth in communities, in a variety of situations, in school and out. Opportunities to study and work with youth are culminated by a period of internship during which the student spends full time in a community learning and living the life of teaching.

3. Continuous programs of co-operative professional improvement. Development of the art of teaching is a process that demands continuous refinement and improvement. It is not enough to help prospective teachers acquire appropriate attitudes and ideals of democratic teaching during pre-service programs of teacher education. If a new type of teaching is to be provided for secondary school youth, realistic programs of continuous professional improvement must be made available by public school systems with the help of teacher-education institutions. Teachers

need help and guidance as they work with youth. They need encouragement to experiment and to try out new ideas. They need assistance in evaluating the success of experimentation. Most of all they need the security that comes from working co-operatively with other teachers in the realization of the major purposes of teaching.

In the past the only program of professional improvement provided for teachers was supervision that more often than not placed emphasis upon conformity, routines, and uniform methods and procedures. Supervision was authoritarian and administrative in character. It concentrated upon compelling teachers to follow adopted textbooks and prepared courses of study. It sought to teach teachers how to "make" pupils achieve minimum standards for promotion and experimented with ways of grouping pupils who failed to keep pace with the arbitrary standards set by the school system. The results are evident in many schools today. Teachers hate and fear supervisors; they conform to accepted procedures and standards as their only source of security; they translate the autocratic leadership to which they are subjected into their own teaching to the effect that pupils must conform or take the consequences.

If democratic teaching is to be developed for youth in our society, steps must be taken to provide teachers with in-service education and supervision directed to this end. Signs of supervision adapted to the needs of democratic teaching are the following:

1. The supervisor is considered a guide or "helping teacher" whose responsibility is only that of improving teaching.[9]

2. Supervision aims at freeing the teacher from routines, conformity for the sake of uniformity, and from tensions resulting from autocratic pressures.

3. In-service education and supervision place emphasis upon helping teachers develop and refine attitudes, techniques and skills necessary for democratic living.

4. All teachers are encouraged to experiment, to try out new ideas, to evaluate the effectiveness of adopted procedures and methods.

5. Teachers work co-operatively to formulate the policies relating to the successful operation of the school.

6. Teachers are given help in learning how to study pupils, their

[9] Helpful on this point will be a collection of incidents and case studies which illustrate ways in which the supervisor may serve as a guide to teaching: Inga Olla Helseth and Lindley J. Stiles, *Supervision As Guidance*. Williamsburg, Va.: The Virginia Gazette Press, 1946, 79 pp.

needs and interests, and in developing teaching procedures which respect these personal characteristics.

7. Teachers are given help in obtaining a variety of materials of instruction.

8. Supervisors study the needs, interests, and abilities of teachers in order to assist them in developing patterns of teaching which utilize to the best advantage their own capacities.

Personal Qualities Demanded for the Teacher of Youth in a Democratic Society

What are the personal qualities demanded of teachers for democratic schools? Who are the young people to be encouraged to enter teaching, and who might feel themselves fitted for teaching? Are people really born teachers, or are the personal qualities necessary for teaching a product of the environment and educational experiences? The answers to these questions will serve as criteria for the identification of those young people who should seek a career in teaching. They will also serve as goals of personal development for all who are considering teaching as a career. It should be pointed out that the presence or absence of a given personal quality may not in itself be sufficient evidence to determine fitness or unfitness for teaching. Rather, the composite of all personal qualities should be considered in the light of the total personality. For example, deficiencies in one quality may be more than compensated for by strengths in others.

One of the most popular topics included in books on teaching in recent years is that of traits, qualities, or characteristics needed by teachers. An intensive study of the traits of teachers according to their importance for teaching in the several divisions of the school system was reported by Charters and Waples in 1929 and based upon rankings made by school administrators.[10] For the senior high school, the traits ranked as the first six in importance were: Breadth of interest, good judgment, self-control, leadership, scholarship and forcefulness. Health was ranked in 16th place, while the low rankings were given to originality, progressiveness, fluency, and thrift. Five years later a student opinion poll was taken by asking 10,000 seniors in 66 high schools their reasons for liking teachers. The results differed markedly from opinions of administrators.[11] Responses of 3725 seniors were used to describe

[10] W. W. Charters and Douglas Waples, *The Commonwealth Teacher Training Study*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1929, 666 pp.

[11] W. F. Hart, *Teachers and Teaching*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1934, 285 pp.

"Teacher A," the best-liked teacher. The reasons given by 1950 of these students included the expression, "is helpful with school work, explains lessons clearly and thoroughly, and uses examples in teaching." The composite trait, "cheerful, happy, good-natured, jolly, has a sense of humor and can take a joke," was listed by 1429 students. The characteristic receiving the third highest number of votes was, "human, friendly, companionable"; fourth, "interested in and understands pupils"; and fifth, "makes work interesting, creates a desire for work, makes class work a pleasure." The traits receiving the fewest votes of high school students, were intelligence, sincerity, broad knowledge, good judgment, and refinement.

It will be noted that the teachers most liked by the students included in Hart's study possessed social traits—characteristics implying a congenial student-teacher relationship. Administrators, on the other hand, ranked highest those qualities which were personal, *individual,* and which exist outside the relationship of students and teachers.

Qualities demanded of teachers by *society* form a better basis for determining those that need to be cultivated rather than those chosen either by administrators or students, although each list includes some of those that may be recommended. Qualities important for teachers from the viewpoint of a democratic society are personal in that individuals possess them, but are actually social in their implications. Prospective teachers should examine themselves to see whether or not they possess these characteristics or feel that they can be developed with reasonable time and effort.

Health. First and foremost, should be placed good health, both physical and mental. The teacher must not only be physically free from disease but should, in addition, possess vitality and abundant energy. Practically all states and school systems require that teachers be free from communicable disease and usually expect freedom from such physical deformities as would make the teacher an unsuitable person for association with young people. More and more we are recognizing that the teacher must not only have good physical health, but he must also enjoy sound mental adjustment. Teachers should possess emotional stability as well as a healthy attitude toward life. Several tests have been developed to help prospective teachers evaluate their emotional adjustment. Usually the college or university personnel service will administer and interpret these tests upon request. The results of such tests do not offer conclusive evidence relative to adjustment, nor do these instruments serve the purpose of diagnosing deep-seated emotional

maladjustments. Their use can be recommended, however, on the ground that those who are considering teaching need as much evidence as possible to obtain a basis for judging their fitness to teach.

Those considering teaching as a career should make certain that they possess the degree of emotional stability that is demanded of those who associate with youth. In many instances where emotional maladjustments are found to be present it is possible to take remedial steps prior to entering teaching. For this reason it is important that all prospective teachers begin early to study their emotional fitness for teaching.

Interest in young people. Interest in the problems of adjustment and growth of young people is a personal characteristic that all teachers must develop. Teaching is concerned with people, with helping people to understand themselves, with assisting young people to solve personal and social problems, and with helping others learn to live more effectively. Teachers teach people, not subjects; consequently, they need to possess so deep an interest in their students that they ever desire to learn more about them and never tire of the process.

Social sensitivity. Teachers in a democracy need a highly developed *social sensitivity*. Democratic teachers are sensitive to the needs, attitudes, desires, feelings and beliefs of others. They are able to anticipate the reactions of others and to gauge the effects of experiences upon individuals, no two of whom are alike. Such teachers have a sympathetic understanding of the things which give meaning to life for others, as well as a keen awareness of the causes of insecurity and frustration. They are cognizant of the strivings of people in all areas of human experience.

Respect for the human personality. Teachers who possess the democratic quality, a deep and abiding respect for the human personality, will promote democratic ideals and assist in the improvement, perpetuation, and extension of democracy. The teacher must be able to accept emotionally every young person he teaches, regardless of differences in intelligence, race, creed, social and economic background, emotional stability, behavior patterns, or ethical concepts. He must sincerely believe in the inherent worth of the individual to society and in the right of all persons who are not anti-social or working against the society of which they are a part to (1) equal opportunity, (2) equal participation, and (3) equal recognition. The democratic teacher will exemplify these beliefs in teaching by (1) permitting and encouraging students to share in planning and executing class procedures,

(2) making provisions for all to take part in class and extraclass activities, and (3) in recognizing the individual achievement and contributions of all to the welfare of the group. The teacher must hold a constant regard for the rights and freedoms of every individual and carry these ideals into practice in all his relationships with students.

Ability to co-operate with others. Teachers must possess the ability to work co-operatively with others in order to achieve the goals of democratic living. This is a quality that has been lacking in the personal abilities of teachers of the past. Teachers have tended to dominate others. They have found it difficult to work co-operatively with pupils, with parents, or with their fellow teachers. Each teacher has reigned as the "king of his own class room." Teachers for democratic schools must develop a different pattern of interaction. They must be able to work within a group toward group objectives which are sought and established through co-operative procedures. This objective, as a personal quality for teachers, not only demands the development of different attitudes but also necessitates the development of skills appropriate for co-operative activities.

Creativeness. Teaching is an art; therefore, it is of necessity creative. But just as an artist must perfect the skills which give release to creative impulses and power, teachers must develop techniques of teaching that release creativeness. The creativeness demanded of teachers is the same creativeness demanded of any type of leader in a democratic society. It is the same quality demanded in the engineer who plans new mechanical developments. It is the same trait possessed by the chemist who searches to understand the mysteries of the elements.

Breadth of interest. The teacher needs to possess a wide range of interests. It has been aptly pointed out that instead of being curious people, teachers should be people who are curious. The desirable good teacher for youth is one who keeps informed about many problems. He is a student of society, human development, psychology, science, world affairs, history, art, literature, and of special areas of knowledge determined by his own particular interests. He reads widely, experiments, participates in community affairs, and helps interpret world events. The teacher is one who is interested in many people and their interrelated problems of living.

Courage. The teacher must possess the courage of conviction. If youth are to be assisted in seeking the truth and knowing the right, teachers must be able and willing to withstand the many

forces that constantly endeavor to inhibit this process. Teachers will not turn their backs on controversy when the ideals of their democratic society are at stake. They possess faith in their ideals and are willing to defend them. A remarkable example of conviction even in the face of persecution and death is that provided by the teachers of Norway during the World War II invasion of their nation by the Nazi war lords.[12] They accepted concentration camps, persecution, and death in preference to teaching that which they did not believe.

Frequently teachers are called upon to work for and to defend not only the educational programs they are developing, but also the type of society itself which teaching is attempting to perpetuate. Courage, devotion to ideals, and willingness to act upon convictions are inescapable personal qualities demanded of all teachers in a democratic society.

Those concerned with teacher preparation continue to be interested in personal qualities needed by teachers. Research has failed to supply a formula to be used in characterizing ideal teachers—an impossible task because personal traits do not function singly, but in combination, and weakness in one trait is often compensated by strength in others. Many desirable personal qualities of teachers could have been mentioned, including, for example, intelligence, morality, enthusiasm, neatness, and poise. But these are traits considered desirable in any teacher and taken for granted without discussion. The foregoing presentation has been concerned with some of those personal qualities which are essential in teachers whose responsibility is to develop in their students a firm allegiance to the democratic faith, which is not an "abstract doctrine," but an attitude and activity, a way of living together, a way of feeling, thinking, and acting in relation to the association of men in a free society.

Professional Qualities Demanded for Teachers

Two misconceptions exist relative to the nature of professional preparation for teaching. The first holds that the teacher who has thoroughly mastered the subject matter to be taught will be a good teacher, no other type of preparation being necessary. The other point of view recognizes the importance of development of scholarship in a subject field, but advocates, in addition, that pro-

[12] Every prospective teacher and every teacher will gain added courage from reading *Norway Teachers Stand Firm.* Washington, D. C.: The Norweigian Government's Press Representatives (Foreword, John Studebaker), United States Commission of Education, 1942, 32 pp.

spective teachers should learn in "education" courses "how" to teach the subject matter in which the prospective teacher has developed competence. These two points of view, both inadequate in the light of concepts of ideal teaching, have been the source of consistent conflict in teacher-education institutions, pitting the subject-matter specialist against the "educationist." Yet both are based upon the fallacious assumption that the task of secondary education is to prepare pupils for successful college work by effectively teaching them the foundation material in the recognized subject fields included in college curricula.

The type of professional education demanded for teachers can be provided by neither of these approaches. The teacher who assumes responsibility for helping youth learn to live democratically must be more than a specialist in one or two subject-matter fields. He must also know more about teaching than is incorporated in the belief that techniques of teaching are merely devices which can be utilized effectively in persuading, bribing, or tricking young people to learn that which the teachers have learned. Instead, the development of a new type of teaching necessitates provision for new concepts of professional education for teachers and new understandings regarding professional qualities that teachers need to develop. This section is devoted to a consideration of certain professional qualities which seem most appropriate for teachers in democratic secondary schools.[13]

Social insight. The development of social insight—an understanding and appreciation of the ideals of democracy—is of genuine importance in the professional education of teachers. They need to understand the meaning of democracy, and they must know the historical development of man's struggle to establish a way of life that permits personal freedom and group co-operation. They must have the ability to translate theories of democratic living into practice. No other people need to know so much about the democratic way of life as do those who teach.

Understanding of child growth and development. Other highly important needs of teachers are related to understanding the characteristic ways in which children grow and develop, the recognized patterns of maturation through which all individuals pass, and ways in which individuals may deviate from the norm in growing

[13] Much of the current thinking regarding the preparation for teaching necessary for American Democracy has been summarized by the Commission on Teacher Education of the American Council on Education and included in two reports: *Teachers for Our Times,* 1944, 178 pp. and *The College and Teacher Education,* 1944, 311 pp., both available through the American Council on Education, Washington, D. C.

into maturity. Teachers need to know the interests, concerns, needs, aptitudes, and capabilities of youth at different stages in their growth.

Understanding of the psychology of learning. Teachers need to be students of psychology to the extent that they understand and can predict with reasonable accuracy the psychological consequences of a given course of action. They need to know the psychological principles that are operative in democratic situations. In particular they need to understand the quality of motivation that is compatible with democratic ideals. They need to recognize the symptoms of specific kinds of behavior and to be able to analyze the underlying causes of such behavior. Above all they should be acquainted with the wide individual differences in secondary school students.

Professional orientation. Teachers should possess appreciation of the purposes of education in a democratic society and the relationship of formal education to other educational forces within society. What is secondary education supposed to accomplish? Whom must it expect to serve? In what ways may it best accomplish its objectives? How may we know when teaching is realizing its function? What can teachers do to change existing patterns of behavior? These and other questions must be answered for the teacher who is to help youth achieve the goal of democratic living.

Skill in group leadership. Teachers need to develop competence in the skills and techniques for creating effective settings for democratic living in secondary schools. They need to master suitable procedures for uniting many individuals with varied differences into cohesive groups which are able to live and work cooperatively toward common objectives. They need to learn how to turn schools and classrooms into laboratories for democratic living. They need to develop skills and proficiency as democratic "change agents," to become sensitive to the qualitative characteristics of groups, and to understand the forces which tend to solidify or disintegrate group rapport.

High level of general cultural development. Teachers need to be broadly educated. Specifically they need (a) competence in communication of ideas, (b) the power of independent thought, (c) an understanding of the contributions of science to modern life, (d) a knowledge of man's historical development, (e) an acquaintance with the forces that affect and tend to limit man's efforts to improve his living, (f) an appreciation of the fields of artistic and creative activity, and (g) an appreciation and understanding of other people and their problems of living. All teachers

should achieve a high quality of understanding of the interrelated contributions of the various fields of knowledge that contribute to man's integration within his environment.

Competence in a field of specialization. Many teachers, particularly those who teach early adolescents, will need to develop a degree of understanding of several fields of specialized knowledge and the ability to relate the different fields to the goals of learning. Such teachers may utilize, for example, materials from the fields of English, social studies, science, and mathematics in developing common learning experiences for youth. Others, however, particularly those who teach later adolescents at the junior college level, in addition to achieving a broad acquaintance with several fields, will desire to develop competence in one or two fields of specialization, such as foreign language, art, or music, in order that such knowledge may be utilized in helping secondary school youth achieve personal development related to vocational, aesthetic, or recreational goals. Teachers should develop skill in using what they have learned in guiding the interests of pupils. A major weakness of teaching in the past has been that teachers have been unable to relate knowledge in a subject field to the broad areas in which human problems manifest themselves. The teacher has been able to help pupils learn facts, but has not been able to help him utilize those same facts for making his personal adjustments to living. No better example of this is found than that of the manner in which teachers have taught history and social studies in secondary schools. Pupils memorized facts about American history but failed to translate the information into behavior patterns appropriate for democratic living. The facts learned were neither converted into understandings nor made to become functional in the lives of the learners.

Understanding "what teaching is." Prospective teachers are handicapped by having experienced traditional practices of teaching. As a result they have come to believe that teaching consists of assigning lessons, hearing recitations, and giving lectures for the purpose of imparting knowledge. They, themselves, have been subjected to a program of education that places emphasis on conformity, memorization and reproduction of facts, agreement with the teacher, and striving for far-removed goals which frequently seem unrelated to recognized personal needs. Many come to accept through custom the practice of having decisions made for them by teachers. They have accepted the practice of studying for extraneous rewards—marks, promotion, honor rolls—as the only manner in which learning takes place. Many prospective teachers

subconsciously desire to become teachers in order that they may turn the tables and become the "master" for a change. They see themselves as teachers similar to those under whom they have studied. They seek to pass on to others the same kind of treatment they have received. Ironically enough, often those who have suffered most from artificial and inadequate methods of teaching soon become the most rabid "defenders of the faith," inflicting the same procedures on high school youth. Teacher-education institutions face a major responsibility in providing a pattern of teaching for prospective teachers which is compatible with the ideals and practices of democratic living. Prospective teachers must accept the task of reconstructing their concepts of what is appropriate teaching for secondary schools.

Summary

Effort has been made to show the need for a new type of teaching—teaching compatible with democratic ideals of living. A brief enumeration has been made of social and educational conditions which give support to this thesis. Presented also are trends already in progress which show promise of developing the type of teaching needed by American democracy. The personal and professional qualities which teachers who seek to guide the growth of adolescent youth need to develop have been suggested and discussed. Chapter 4 will present an over-all view of the historical development of teaching in American secondary schools and an analysis of methods now commonly employed in secondary school teaching.

Related Experiences

1. Analyze your own program of preparation for teaching in terms of the suggested professional competencies necessary for a new type of teaching.
2. Visit teachers in nearby public schools or in your own college laboratory school for the purpose of attempting to identify their personal qualities noted as desirable in this chapter.
3. If you have not already done so arrange with your college personnel office for testing and counseling regarding your own aptitude for teaching, interest in teaching, and emotional adjustment.
4. Using Schorling's "Evolving Bill of Rights for Teachers," evaluate the conditions under which teachers in your own high school (or in a high school located near your college campus) teach today.
5. Compare statistics related to the percentage of secondary school

youth in school in your home community with the average for the nation.

6. Evaluate experiences of youth in a public school system in terms of the suggested "Bill of Rights for Youth."

7. Arrange to participate with other prospective teachers in your group in an opinion survey designed to collect information relative to "Why youth drop out of school?" Each member of the class can locate two or three persons under the age of twenty who did not complete high school. Ask the following questions: Why did you withdraw from school? What do you think was wrong with the teaching in your high school? What did you like about the way teachers taught?

8. List experiences which you think your own high school might have provided to help prepare you for living in a democratic society.

9. Identify the number of first-hand experiences that you have had with high school youth as a part of your program of teacher preparation. Analyze the contribution each has made to your growth.

10. Analyze your own personal qualifications for teaching, identifying your strengths and weaknesses. Ask your classmates to help you. Indicate steps which you plan to take to correct your recognized weaknesses.

Suggested Readings

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Chapter 4

METHODS OF TEACHING

What is the meaning of method? . . . What is the importance of method to education? . . . How is method related to philosophy of education? . . . What were the characteristics of teaching in Colonial secondary schools? . . . What action has America always taken against secondary schools that failed to achieve their social function? . . . How has American democracy protested against the failure of the present secondary school to meet the needs of all youth? . . . What was the nature of early attempts to instruct teachers in "how" to teach? . . . How have teachers tried to adapt teaching to the "many"? . . . What approaches characterize present-day methods of teaching in secondary schools? . . . In what direction are methods of teaching in secondary schools moving? . . . How are changes in method effected?

Parallel with the attempt to establish and refine American democracy as a way of life have existed related efforts to develop and improve democratic teaching procedures for the schools of the nation. Just as it is difficult for people conditioned to a despotic pattern of life to adjust to a democratic theory of living, so it is difficult for teachers to develop from autocratic educational backgrounds and experiences teaching procedures in accord with democratic ideals.

Concept of Method

Before we can understand the weaknesses found in secondary school teaching it is necessary to answer the questions, "What is method?" and "What is the function of method in the teaching process." Conceptions concerning method must be improved in order to eliminate confusion as to the true meaning of method in democratic teaching. Teachers also need to understand the rela-

tionship between method of teaching and philosophy of education.

Meaning of method. The democratization of education has been influenced by many factors, including organization, curriculum, and method. Because of their interrelationships they can be discussed separately only so long as we bear in mind that no one of them can function independently of the others.

"Method" is a term used to describe the way in which a procedure takes place. It may refer to the procedure as a whole or to one or more of its phases. "Method" means a "way of doing," and when applied to teaching it refers to the way in which the teaching is carried on—how the teacher sets the stage for learning, guides activities of the learners, and evaluates the results of the instructional program. A method applied to the whole teaching process or to every kind of teaching is called a "general method"—a way of teaching in general. For special devices, particular procedures, or specific ways of teaching, we use the term "special methods." Special methods are related to the teaching of specific subjects, to particular levels in the school system, or to what may be called certain "types" of teaching.

Practically every book on teaching has one or more chapters on "methods," and education departments in college and universities offer courses in "methods." Subject matter departments include among their offerings methods of teaching specific subjects. Courses in methods of teaching, such as "Primary Methods," "Elementary Methods," "Methods for Secondary Schools," "Methods for Teaching in Rural Schools," and many others have all had their place in teacher-preparation.

To some, "method" means a set of devices to be used in meeting certain specific situations, each situation calling for a different device. To others the term refers to a set of general principles adaptable to any teaching activity. The latter view is the one taken by this book. Consequently, when the term *method* is used, it refers to *general method* used in secondary schools.

To be effective, method must be based upon a sound educational philosophy that agrees in purpose with the kind of teaching demanded by the society in which it takes place. Method must develop out of a clear understanding of society if, as a "way of teaching," its use is to develop the abilities, traits, knowledges, skills, and appreciations which are necessary for the attainment of social goals. Since organized society furnishes the goals of education as well as its content, the type of society for which teaching is carried on must surely determine the method of teaching most likely to further its purposes.

Method may refer to various phases of the teacher's work. It may apply to *organization* of instructional materials, learning situations, and classroom conditions conducive to co-operative living. It may refer to the *guidance* of learners in their many activities —in their choice, in their participating, in their development, in their attainment of goals. It may be a matter of *appraisal* of the ends to be sought, the objectives to be reached in the process of achieving goals, and the activities shared in the educational process. It may refer to *evaluation* of the materials used by the learners, the progress made in the learning process and the end results of their learning.

When discussing areas in which method operates, it is sometimes difficult to distinguish the method from the actual teaching. When we say that method means the "way" in which teaching takes place we come close to describing the *kind* or *quality* as well as the manner of teaching. The term *teaching,* however, is broader than method. It denotes many and varied activities, purposes, functions, processes, and outcomes, as well as the techniques employed which together make up method.

Importance of method. No one would deny that the purposes of education are so important that they should be attained instead of merely being talked about. But few, other than professional educators, have any concept of the way in which it can be done. The process of teaching must make sure that these purposes will be attained. It is the function of teaching to help change the behavior of pupils so that they will reach the goals set by society, that they will go from where they are at present to where society wishes them to be in order to attain the ends of democratic living. Method is the way this process takes place, "how" the teacher helps the learners to reach their goals.

In a democratic school the goals of education are related to attitudes, understandings, behavior patterns, and skills of democratic living. Because the good citizen is one who is able to think independently, ability to think must necessarily be an end sought. Knowledge is recognized as an important means to the end of thinking and acting. In secondary schools these values depend as much on the method of teaching as on the actual subject matter learned.

Attitudes appropriate for democratic living are the product of both thinking and experience. Since attitudes spring from deeply embedded emotional responses resulting from personal or vicarious associations and experiences, they can best be changed by the critical study of those experiences which provide different

satisfactions. Requiring verbal responses is inadequate as a procedure for changing attitudes. It is futile to lecture to pupils or to require them to read about the democratic quality of "shared respect" if they witness day by day the lack of respect paid by teachers to youth who do not fit the highly academic curriculum and narrow concept of teaching followed in the school.

Fundamental to the theory of democratic education is the psychological principle that first-hand experience is the primary basis of all learning. Actually, we learn by doing or by associating vicarious experiences with real experiences.

The opportunity to live effectively in a democratic school group is worth more in terms of democratic behavior and attitudes than is any amount of verbal experience. Young people learn intolerance by living in an intolerant atmosphere. They learn conformity by conforming. They develop faith in absolute authorities through experiences that provide superficial security based upon absolutes. Likewise, they learn shared respect by living in a community where respect is shared. They develop the ability to think by being permitted and encouraged to think. They acquire tolerance by living in an atmosphere of tolerance. The difference between people in a democratic society and people in an autocratic society is a result of the differences existing in the kinds of living which they have experienced.

Method is important since upon it depends the ease with which learning takes place, the certainty that learning will occur, the attitudes of the learner, and the assurance that the desired goals will be reached. There is no feature of American education that has been more influenced by the democratic sentiment than *method*. If a democratic method is employed, no other phase of the educational process can do so much toward perpetuating the American concept of democracy.

Method can provide for sharing in democratic procedures and for participating in activities that are actually carried on democratically. It can make equality of opportunity possible for every student. It can provide for individual development as well as for growth in group welfare, and fraternity or community feeling. It can give the individual a realization of his own worth and acceptance and the security which comes from a feeling of belonging.

The American people have long been aware of weaknesses in public education. They have shown real concern at the apparent lack of carry-over from life in the schools to life in the community. Educators and parents have recognized the fact that many young people dislike school so much that they not only learn little from

school experiences but often develop adverse attitudes, insecurities, and maladjustments as a result of school treatment. The tendency has usually been, however, to blame the youth for such results. The public, believing that *real* learning must of necessity be hard, disagreeable, and distasteful, reasons that it is natural for youth to dislike school. Schools have punished youth for their failures, blamed them for the results of bad teaching, and frequently driven them out of school as uneducable. Only in recent years has any considerable number of either teachers or parents begun to realize that the methods of teaching employed may be at fault.

When the procedures of evaluation are focused upon teaching rather than the pupil, several glaring weaknesses are revealed. Teachers use poor methods. Teachers and laymen are little concerned about method. Institutions preparing teachers have failed to provide opportunities for prospective teachers to observe the use of democratic methods in laboratory schools. They have neglected or refused to employ democratic methods in their instruction or to stress the importance of such methods in relation to teaching. They have failed to emphasize that method is the teacher's basic skill. Other deficiencies may limit a teacher's success or cause actual failure, but none is so important as lack of skill in method. These weaknesses may be explained in part by the misconceptions of teaching held by those responsible for assisting teachers to develop democratic method during their training and their service in our schools.

The relation of method to philosophy of education. The activities of the teacher are guided by certain assumptions, beliefs, and attitudes related to the purposes of education in society and the responsibility of the school in achieving those purposes. The teacher's general method reflects his knowledge, or lack of knowledge, concerning the needs of society and his responsibility in meeting them. It also reveals his understanding of, or attitude toward, the nature of learning and the way in which behavior changes are produced. The teacher may not be able to state his philosophy or be sure that he has one, but all that he does furnishes evidence of the philosophy that he consciously or unconsciously follows.

One of the most serious problems that the prospective teacher has to solve is the development of a consistent and intelligent philosophy of teaching. A part of this philosophy has to do with method, the way in which he will assist students to make the adjustments necessary to attain the goals of democratic education. His philosophy will change, of course, and so will his method, his

objectives, his goals, as well as his attitudes, ideals, and understandings as he makes conscious effort to adapt them to the changing ideals, aspirations and hopes of society. In the meantime he should understand the close relationship of his daily instructional activities to the general educational philosophy that determines the values of education.

Method of teaching is meaningful only to the extent that it implements the philosophy and purposes of education acceptable to society. Good teaching is the attempt to translate into active learning situations the purposes of education. Philosophy furnishes the guiding principles that determine the goals of education, and indicates *what* is to be taught and *how* teaching is to be conducted.

Historical Development of Method

Writers of the history of education usually attribute the earliest concern for method to Herbart. His two principal contributions to education are called to the attention of prospective teachers—his stress upon social and moral characteristics of education and his systematic formulation of teaching methods. Herbart's followers translated his insistence upon association and interest into a rigid pattern known as the five formal steps of learning and teaching. These are (1) preparation, (2) presentation, (3) association, (4) generalization, and (5) application.[2]

Another reference often made by authors of histories of education is to the Jesuits and to Jesuit method.[3] The process of teaching used by the Jesuits is that of prelection and repetition. As a means of motivation they appealed to respect and affection for parents and teachers, to the student's sense of duty, and to the natural desire for excellence.

Although the first uses of method were not written about because they occurred too long ago, method has played a role in teaching as long as teaching has taken place. Whether it was a primitive parent teaching a child the folkways of the tribe or a modern college professor instructing men and women in the characteristics of democracy, method has been used wherever teaching has been carried on.

Methods of teaching in early colonial secondary schools. Early colonial schools were direct transplantations from European nations to their colonies in the New World. At the time of colonization of America, European society was despotic in character. Thus

[2] For an explanation of these terms the reader is referred to Freeman R. Butts, *A Cultural History of Education*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1947, p. 438.

[3] See Frederick Eby and C. F. Arrowood, *Development of Modern Education*. New York: Prentice-Hall, 1936, p. 195.

it was to be expected that teaching methods would be characterized by autocratic procedures. It was out of a background of despotism that American democracy was developed. Similarly, schools for democracy had their source in an inheritance of despotic purposes and teaching procedures. American education inherited a background of autocratic methods of teaching and continued to follow the leadership of authoritarian schools in Europe until well into the twentieth century. Until the time of the American revolution it was to be expected that existing schools would be patterned after schools in the nations from which American settlers migrated and of which the colonies were a part. But even after the establishment of a new nation dedicated to a new pattern of life, American scholars and teachers still looked to despotic nations for leadership in education.

It has been only during the last twenty-five years that serious attention has been directed to the need of developing a program of education and teaching in American schools peculiarly adapted to the needs of a democratic society. Even today it is not an uncommon practice for teachers from European nations with authoritarian educational backgrounds to be employed in American secondary schools and colleges. Many such teachers are sincerely interested in developing democratic techniques of teaching. Others mistakenly attempt to continue a method of teaching which was appropriate to the despotic societies from which they came. The fact that authoritarian methods do not present a more recognizable contrast is in itself an indication of existing complacency of the American people and teachers in accepting a dictatorial method of teaching in the public schools of a democratic nation. Most of the autocratic practices in education and teaching may be directly traced to either our original inheritance of despotic schools or to our later imitation of educational practices in schools of despotic nations.

A second characteristic of teaching in early colonial secondary schools was a direct outgrowth of the narrowly conceived purpose of the early schools. The original secondary school had as its major objective the development of literacy for a small proportion of colonial youth. Selected and gifted youth attended secondary schools in order to learn to read the classical languages which were at the time necessary tools of higher learning. The secondary school functioned primarily as a college preparatory school for the ablest youth who sought to prepare themselves for the study of theology. As a preparatory institution the secondary school accepted the function of screening students, and it eliminated those who found little interest in or competence for abstract study.

Early American schools had not yet accepted the responsibility of preparing youth for life. This was considered a duty of the home. The school emphasized the memorization of logically organized bodies of knowledge, the training of the mind, and conformity to adult standards of scholarship and academic discipline. Some teachers still defend antiquated teaching practices on the grounds of paternalism, mental discipline, and the naive assumption that knowledge alone is power. It is not uncommon to hear prominent educators assert that the job of the secondary school and of the colleges is to train leaders and that of the elementary schools to train followers. Many still cherish the belief that the secondary school should continue to serve only the intellectual aristocracy of our society.

It is not difficult to find undemocratic concepts in secondary schools today. Many high school teachers consider it their function to select the most capable youth and prepare them for successful college study. Many junior college instructors concentrate almost entirely upon preparing young people for success in their junior and senior college years or in graduate study. The secondary school curriculum, materials of instruction, methods of teaching—all tend to favor the youth capable of developing the quality of abstract learning found in the typical American university.

A third major influence of teaching in early colonial schools was the puritanical concept of life held by many of the founding fathers of the nation. It was inevitable that harshness, narrowness, bigotry, intolerance, and a distorted concept of religion would find their way into the theories of teaching that motivated American schools. Early secondary school teachers were recruited from the ranks of those who also served as ministers. Since secondary education originally devoted much of its attention to the purposes of religion it was to be expected that religious concepts and beliefs would play an important part in shaping the methods of teaching employed. Colonial secondary school teaching was influenced by such beliefs as the following:

1. Children at birth are inflicted with the sin of their parents and must be redeemed through rigid discipline, penance, and conformity to religious rituals.
2. The Supreme Being is a God of retribution who punishes sinners for their mistakes.
3. The "good life" is achieved only through suffering, hardship, and mental and spiritual anguish.
4. Unbelievers and sinners should be punished by the righteous.

5. It is the responsibility of parents and adults to plan the lives of youth.

The continuing struggle to change emphasis in American secondary schools. Taking advantage of opportunities for improved and expanded conditions of living in a new world, early Americans sought to develop a school system which would help the youth of the society realize more fully the opportunities for freedom, security, self-respect, and happiness. Efforts to reshape schools to meet the needs of youth and to fulfill the social purposes of the group were particularly in evidence at the secondary school level. When one school failed to meet the educational needs of all the youth in a growing society, a rival and competing institution was organized. First the Latin-grammar school was challenged by a new school offering promise of a broader and more socially useful type of education—the academy. Later the academy suffered the same fate when it was supplanted by the English classical high school, which has developed into the high school of the present. Then, just prior to World War II, during the depression years of the 1930's, it seemed for a time that the growth of the high school would be retarded by a fourth type of school created in an effort to meet the needs of youth not served satisfactorily by existing secondary schools—a school known as the Civilian Conservation Corps or more commonly, the CCC camp. A brief historical description of the characteristics of each of these types of secondary schools will illustrate the growing struggle to democratize method in secondary schools.

THE LATIN-GRAMMAR SCHOOL

(1635 to the late 1700's)

Function	Curriculum	Method of Teaching
To teach highly gifted boys to read Latin and Greek in order that they might enter college.	Latin, Greek, and theology.	Teacher-dictated assignments, recitations. Emphasis on memorization, verbalization, and mind training. Rigid discipline for discipline's sake.

Criticism

Too few youth, boys only, were served. The material learned was functional for only a small segment of the population. Methods of teaching were autocratic, paternalistic, and aimed at conformity to adult standards. School experiences had little relationship to life in colonial society.

Decline

The Latin-grammar school was supplemented by the academy because the former did not meet the personal and social needs of all youth.

THE ACADEMY
(1851 to the middle 1800's)

Purpose	Curriculum	Method of Teaching
To teach boys and girls the "important business of living."	Two curriculums: the Latin-scientific, and the English curriculum.	Teaching in Latin-scientific curriculum similar to that of Latin-grammar school. Instruction in English curriculum was in English and aimed at providing practical experiences related to life.

Criticism

Benjamin Franklin, the founder of the first academy and a strong advocate of education for life, later criticized the academy on three grounds: (1) The pupils were encouraged to study the Latin-scientific curriculum which was favored as academically respectable by the members of the faculty; (2) faculty members in the Latin-scientific curriculum were better trained and better paid; (3) the practical curriculum was looked upon with so much disrespect that it was not permitted to realize its function.

Decline

The academy was supplanted by the high school because the former did not meet the personal and social needs of all the pupils and of all the people.

THE HIGH SCHOOL
(1821 to the present)

Purpose	Curriculum	Method of Teaching
To teach all youth to live in a democratic society.	Emphasis on college preparation although offering general, vocational, and business curricula.	Emphasis still largely upon verbalization, memorization, teacher-dictated assignments, recitations. Mind training exercises common. Trends toward democratic methods.

Criticism

The high school serves only 70 per cent of youth of secondary school age. Only about half the youth of the nation completes the twelfth year. Emphasis on academic achievement is often only remotely related to purposes of the secondary school. Method of teaching is more autocratic than democratic. Pupils do not develop competency for democratic living.

Evidence of dissatisfaction with the American high school. Because the history of American secondary education depicts the constant search for new types of schools to oppose nonfunctional institutions, we are compelled to recognize evidence of dissatisfaction with contemporary secondary schools.

Perhaps the most extensive opposition to the present high school was provided by the Civilian Conservation Corps, organized by the Federal Government in 1933. A product of the depression years, the CCC camps were created to provide education, work, and citizenship training for millions of adolescent youth who were out of school and out of work. Many of these young people had been forced out of the American secondary schools because their interests, ambitions, and abilities were not adapted to the narrowly conceived pattern of teaching and learning that existed in a majority of high schools. When it became apparent that the existing secondary school would not or could not adapt itself rapidly enough to meet the needs of all youth, the Federal Government came to the rescue by providing a new type of school which continued until the beginning of World War II.

The Civilian Conservation Corps served the purpose of providing practical vocational training and citizenship education—education for life—to youth who were not acceptable to public high schools. These youth lived and worked together in numerous temporary encampments. As the name implies, their work was directed toward the conservation of natural resources of the nation. They learned trades, gained supervised work experience, were given opportunities to study the values of the nation's resources, and were taught the rudimentary skills of co-operative living and attitudes of good citizenship. The method of teaching in the Civilian Conservation Corps was largely informal, practical, and functional. Little emphasis was placed upon verbalism.

Learning through active participation was considered the best means for acquiring desired objectives. Evidence that this type of "school" was considered to be in opposition to the existing public secondary schools is found in the attitude of the late Franklin D.

Roosevelt, who served as President of the United States at the time the Civilian Conservation Corps was created. President Roosevelt insisted that no experienced public school educators be employed in the higher administrative positions in the Corps. He apparently believed that such people would be unable to think beyond the academic tradition of the secondary school.

The Civilian Conservation Corps represents only one type of opposition expressed against the American public secondary school. Throughout the nation there are privately supported business schools and colleges that compete with the high school in attempting to provide practical training for commercial positions. In large cities, trade schools have been another source of competition for the academic secondary school. Such schools are sometimes privately supported, but often they are created by boards of education that have despaired of adapting traditional high schools to the needs of all youth. In some instances trade schools have been created as a result of special endowments earmarked for this type of school.

The private high school has represented a fourth type of opposition to the public secondary school in the United States. Like the parochial high schools, they have been established and maintained because substantial numbers of citizens were dissatisfied with the type of education provided by public high schools. Many such schools were created in response to demands for more narrowly conceived instructional procedures than those provided in the public schools. Others, to the contrary, were established because of a desire for a better and more functional type of education than that offered by the public high schools.

On the college level the junior college represents a pronounced protest against the selective, formal, academic program of instruction typical of many four-year liberal arts colleges and universities. The effects of competition from these upper-level secondary schools may be seen in the programs of reorganization that four-year institutions have initiated in order to meet the challenge of the junior college in areas of general education, citizenship preparation, and vocational guidance, as well as in the area of terminal education.

It is significant that each new secondary school developed in the United States has attempted to promote educational experiences designed to help *all* youth live more fully and satisfactorily. As each new school developed it tended to revert to earlier inflexible traditions and began to lean toward serving only the intellectual

and social aristocracy. In each instance, society has despaired of adapting the existing school to its broader and expanding needs and has responded by establishing new and competing schools.

World War II halted, perhaps temporarily, the growth of a school designed to compete with the present American secondary school. The public high schools have attempted to meet the competition from business colleges, trade schools, parochial, and private high schools by broadening their curricula to include similar experiences. Through programs of curriculum reorganization and in-service training for teachers and through efforts to develop concepts of functional education and democratic procedures of teaching, the public schools are endeavoring to extend their services to all of the children and youth of the society. It is to be hoped that the secondary school will be able to rid itself of the shackles of tradition and adapt its curriculum and teaching method to the purpose for which it exists—the preparation of youth for living in a democratic society.

Introduction of teacher education: efforts to help teachers learn "how" to teach. Students of education sometimes overlook the fact that the American public secondary school, dedicated to the task of helping young people develop skills appropriate for living in a new society, was established just nine years after the War of 1812 had assured the existence of the newly formed United States of America. Already the people of the growing democracy had concluded that aristocratic and authoritarian schools were unsuited to the needs of the new democratic nation. As a brave and courageous people struggled to create a new way of life, they turned to public education for teaching appropriate to their multiple and complex needs. It was not mere coincidence that in 1839, only sixteen years after the establishment of the English classical high school, the first public teacher-education institution was established in Lexington, Massachusetts. The movement for professional education of teachers arose from the needs of a new society demanding that its youth be taught from childhood the aims, ideals, and skills of democratic living.

Early teacher-education institutions, normal schools,[4] attempted to help teachers learn to teach by providing two types of experiences: (1) Lectures on "schoolkeeping" given to prospective teachers by experienced teachers; and (2) teaching demonstrations provided in "observation schools" maintained in connection with the

[4] *Normal* is a French word meaning a mode or a rule, connoting that the object of the normal school was to give teachers rules for teaching. Butts, *op. cit.*, p. 492.

teacher-education institution. A later development was the provision of actual practice in teaching in order that prospective teachers could learn to translate educational theories into practice.

By the beginning of the twentieth century, universities and colleges of liberal arts had grudgingly added departments of education designed to meet the ever-increasing demand for the professional preparation of teachers.

Adapting teaching to the "many." Between 1900 and 1940 senior high school—grades 9–12—enrollments increased from 700,000 to 7,000,000, necessitating the development of many new schools and the training of more than a quarter-million teachers. In addition, the junior college, as the capstone of the secondary school program, offered continued general training, the beginning of specialization, and terminal education. The phenomenal increase in enrollment has brought into secondary schools a pupil population of wide individual differences with respect to interests, economic and social background, race, religious creeds, aptitude, ability, and vocational preference.

As a result, teachers in secondary schools have been confronted with the necessity of accelerating their efforts to develop methods of teaching adapted to the needs of all youth. Emergency attempts to meet this problem of rapidly increasing enrollments have led to the adoption of such specific methods as the following:

1. The lecture method—enabling teachers to teach larger classes.
2. The project method—providing for a certain amount of self-teaching.
3. Using standard examinations as a major means of measuring growth.
4. "Ability grouping"—futile efforts to organize pupils in groups of similar learning capacity in order that the lock-step method of teaching subject matter might prove more successful.
5. Providing "remedial instruction" for pupils who found themselves unable to keep abreast of those following lock-step procedures.
6. Using more varied materials of instruction such as audio-visual aids, workbooks, and supplementary reading materials.

As yet, efforts to adapt teaching procedures to the "many" have not always proved successful. A major reason for many disheartening teaching failures has been the function to which high school teachers give allegiance. Although less than half the youth now enrolled in secondary schools have an interest in, or aptitude for, successful academic work, high school teaching is still basically

geared to the college-preparatory student. Efforts to adapt teaching procedures to the abilities, interests and attitudes of a wide variety of youth are failing because teaching is attempting to serve two masters—the intellectual aristocracy of college preparation on the one hand, and the personal and social needs of youth in a democratic society on the other.

Current Methods of Secondary School Teaching

The methods of teaching discussed here are those general patterns of instruction that are applicable with only minor modifications to various subject matter fields.[5] Essentially they represent approaches to teaching that may be employed by all secondary school teachers.

The classification of patterns of teaching becomes an arbitrary process because so many different approaches to teaching are found in secondary schools. Certain methods of teaching called by the same name may differ greatly, while other patterns given different names may actually be very similar. No two teachers will utilize the same method of teaching in the same manner, and individual teachers may vary the application of a given method or employ several distinct patterns of teaching for the sake of variety and in serving different purposes. It is possible, within the framework of these limitations, to identify several patterns of teaching that are found to be characteristic of American secondary schools.[6]

Teacher-centric methods of teaching. Two patterns of teaching are controlled and dominated by teachers. They emphasize the memorization of subject matter and the kind of thinking that attempts only to supply the correct responses to teacher directed questions. Teachers utilizing such methods decide arbitrarily what is important for students to learn, and perform the limited functions of encouraging them to learn the material presented and measuring the amount of learning that takes place. Pupils succeed by providing the correct verbal responses either orally or on paper and pencil tests.

[5] A comprehensive treatment of the research related to general methods of teaching is included in the section, "Methods of Teaching," in the *Encyclopedia of Educational Research,* prepared for the first edition by W. S. Monroe and S. M. Corey and revised for the second edition by Lindley J. Stiles.

[6] The classification of patterns of teaching employed represents a modification of two systematic attempts to identify discrete general methods of teaching. The two basic sources for the classification are: W. S. Monroe and Arlyn Marks, "General Methods of Teaching," *Educational Administration and Supervision,* 24:497–512, 1938; and F. M. Underwood, "Evolution of Educational Method," *Educational Method,* 18:230–3, February, 1939.

1. The recitation. The recitation is a pattern of teaching in which the teacher assigns lessons, often from a single textbook, which pupils are expected to study intensively in order that they may be prepared to recite during the recitation period. Study usually takes place either during a supervised study period, in a school study hall, or during out-of-school hours. During the recitation the teacher usually questions various members of the class about the facts and implications of the subject matter studied. Characteristically, all classroom conversations are supposed to take place only between the teacher and individual pupils. Rarely do pupils ask questions of each other or discuss problems among themselves. More often, the teacher attempts to make sure that pupils do their work individually.

Teachers who utilize the recitation method place great stress upon the proper procedure for directing questions to members of the class. Emphasis is given in conducting the recitation to such suggestions as the following:

a. Always frame the question to be asked before naming the pupil who is to respond.

b. Avoid repeating the answers given by pupils.

c. Commend pupils who give correct answers (those answers sought by teachers).

d. Skip from one pupil to another in asking questions in order that all pupils may be kept alert.

e. Require pupils to raise their hands when they desire to respond to questions.

Oddly enough, in spite of numerous condemnations,[7] the recitation continues to be a predominant method in secondary schools of today. Many research studies have used the recitation as the method employed for control groups in experimental investigations. The results are usually unfavorable to the recitation as a general method of teaching and decidedly uncomplimentary when the goals of teaching are defined as appropriate attitudes, problem solving abilities, or social skills.

2. The lecture method. The lecture method ranks close to the recitation method in terms of frequency of use. Perhaps the emphasis upon the lecture method in secondary schools is to be expected because it is the predominant method employed in in-

[7] Twenty years ago the major objections to the recitation method formed the basis for a book by V. T. Thayer entitled, *The Passing of the Recitation,* Boston: D. C. Heath and Co., 1928, 331 pp. Apparently, however, many teachers and prospective teachers either failed to read or to endorse this and other similar death proclamations for the recitation.

stitutions of higher learning, and it is consequently the method of teaching that beginning teachers have experienced most recently. The lecture method is frequently employed in courses in professional education which supposedly serve the purpose of teaching teachers "how" to teach.

The lecture method usually involves giving lectures of well-organized, factual material in a subject matter field. The teacher may follow the outline of the class textbook which pupils are expected to read during out-of-class time, or he may present material and explanations supplementary to that which students study. During lectures, students are expected to record for future reference the significant facts and material presented by the teacher. Evaluation of growth in conjunction with the lecture method typically includes written tests on which pupils are expected to give evidence that they have mastered and assimilated the material presented in the lectures. The lecture method has often been facetiously described as a process of transferring notes from the teacher's notebook to the student's notebook without the meaning and implications of the material having passed through the heads of either.

Certain assumptions are fundamental to the utilization of the lecture method. First of all, it must be assumed that teaching consists of telling pupils the facts, the correct answers, and what is important for them to learn. Secondly, it is assumed that all pupils learn equally well through passive listening. The lecture method implies that all pupils are equally interested in what the teacher considers important and will assimilate the material at the same rate. It is also assumed that all teachers are equally gifted in the ability to hold the attention and interest of a widely diversified group. The lecture method is teacher-dominated and controlled. It places a premium on verbalization and implies that learning is a process of receiving information.

Results of scientific investigation into the usefulness of the lecture method of teaching in secondary schools suggest that:

a. More mature pupils profit most from the lecture method.

b. Students who have a highly developed verbal ability are most likely to respond to this approach.

c. Existing rapport within the classroom group and between the teacher and individual pupils has a direct bearing upon the effectiveness of the procedure.

d. The relationship between the lecture and the learner's problems and needs contributes significantly to the method's usefulness.

e. The ability of the lecturer to lead listeners to share and assimilate his material contributes directly to the values of the lecture method.

Suggestions worthy of consideration for improving the lecture method include the following:

a. The teacher should have mimeographed copies of the lecture distributed to members of the group in order that the class period may be devoted to a discussion of the pertinent ideas rather than to copying notes.

b. When lectures are given, the lecturer should be so informed about his subject that he can talk informally to the group without the use of notes or without resorting to reading a manuscript.

c. Only teachers who possess unusual ability to hold the attention of a group should attempt to employ the lecture method. The teacher capable of utilizing the lecture method effectively, at any level, is probably capable of earning a living as a professional lecturer.

d. Although it is doubtful that the lecture method has much value as an exclusive pattern of teaching in secondary schools, teachers may find it helpful to utilize the procedure of "telling," "describing," "relating anecdotes," "explaining," and "analyzing facts and trends" to supplement other patterns of instruction. In any pattern of teaching there will be occasions when the teacher will find it expedient to present ideas to the group as a whole or to give explanations related to problems confronted by all members of a class.

Pupil-centric methods of teaching. In protests against teacher-centric patterns of teaching, men like Dewey, McMurry, Morrison, and others made contributions to the theory of teaching in secondary schools that led to transferring the focus of attention from the teacher to the interests and needs of the pupil. Teacher-centric methods place emphasis on systematically organized subject matter, on the processes of memorization of facts which support generalizations, and upon verbalistic procedures. Pupil-centric methods are based upon the needs and problems recognized and accepted as important by pupils. Psychological implications and functional usefulness are criteria in the selection of subject matter in the pupil-centric methods of teaching. Teachers seek to help pupils begin where *they* are in solving problems that *they* consider important. Thereafter the teacher's role is to help pupils expand

their interests, their recognition of values, and their acceptance of related problems. Pupil-centric methods of teaching feature independent study, problem-solving techniques, learning through experiences, and logical thinking under *guidance* of the teacher.

1. The laboratory method. Several types of teaching may be appropriately grouped under the laboratory pattern of teaching: the Winnetka Plan, the Dalton Plan, and the contract plan, to name a few. No two of these patterns of teaching are exactly alike, but each contain certain characteristics found in that type of teaching called the laboratory method. Fundamentally, the laboratory method attempts to produce, in the classroom, laboratory situations that permit pupils to learn through the application of the experimental method.

Learning exercises are usually organized around problems to be solved. Provision is made for individual differences by permitting students to work singly or in groups of two or three at their own rate. Students not only read the textbook and perhaps supplementary materials, but they also participate in actual experiences as an approach to solving problems. As an example, students in an English class who are attempting to expand their reading interests may conduct a survey in the community to determine what adults read. As compared with the recitation and the lecture, the laboratory method of teaching places more emphasis on long-term assignments or units of work than on day-by-day short assignments. Each unit of work is characterized by recognized pupil and teacher objectives, identification of a problem, formulation of hypotheses as to possible solutions for the problem, conducting study and experimentation in an effort to substantiate the formulated hypotheses, and evaluation of the results.

In using the laboratory method of teaching we find that—

a. The pupil's interest, abilities, state of maturation, and rate of learning are recognized and respected in planning and conducting learning experiences.

b. The teacher attempts to adapt the problems to be solved to the interest level of the group.

c. Modifications are made in order to meet developmental situations.

d. Students are permitted to discover through their own study and experimentation significant conclusions, generalizations, and principles. Facts are learned when they contribute to the solution of problems and therefore function as a means to an end.

e. Classroom activities are concerned with independent study, group discussion, formulation of hypotheses, guidance of individual pupils in actual experimentation, and preparing and giving pupil reports of the results of study.

The laboratory method of teaching seeks to develop habits of scientific procedure by permitting young people in school to practice this approach to the solution of problems. Experiments and problems are usually presented by the teacher, but the pupil is permitted to use his individual initiative in searching for solutions. It is in this sense that the laboratory method is pupil-centric. Pupil activities, efforts, and contributions are the center of classroom learning.

The laboratory method has been criticized on the ground that teachers frequently control the experimentation too closely. The pupil is permitted to experiment at his own rate, but he must do so according to a preconceived plan of the teacher. The student is given minute directions for conducting experimentation and must follow them explicitly, step by step, to the correct solution of the problem or to the proving of an established hypothesis. The teacher's function to set up the problems to be solved, provide direction to see that procedures for their solution are meticulously followed, and help pupils understand the consequences of the process. Pupils know in advance that if they will follow the prescribed directions they will successfully complete the experiment. Obviously, such a "cookbook" approach to teaching may be valuable in teaching pupils to adhere to specific directions, but it has little value otherwise. Pupils do not learn to think because they are concerned with following the refined results of the thoughts of others. However, the laboratory method, properly conceived and developed, has proved useful in adapting school learning to the needs, interest and abilities of pupils.

2. *The project method.* Included under the heading of the project method are such patterns of teaching as the unit-mastery plan, the organization of teaching materials into long-term units, the development of the activity approach to learning, and other types of teaching which provide for the development of classroom learning around several more or less all-inclusive major projects. Study in a social studies course of a unit on the *western movement,* a subject in which pupils can relate their study, activities, and group discussions, is a good example of the project. A music class project might be concerned with becoming acquainted with the

music of *American composers.* In an English class, students may build their study and other learning experiences around a project such as a *creative writing* publication. A project in mathematics may center around such a theme as *inhibitors to thinking.*

As compared with the experimental method, which is concerned with experimentation designed to prove the validity of a hypothesis or activities directed toward the solution of important problems, the project method provides for the development of a series of learning experiences around a central theme or within the frame of reference of a broad area of study. The project method encourages a wide exploration of knowledge related to the project being developed. It attempts to help the learner see the relationship of isolated facts and specific generalizations to a whole body of experience. Students studying early colonial life in an English or social studies class will learn through a study of literature, science, history, art, and music about the life of the early colonists. The project cuts across subject matter lines in order that all meaningful material related to a major development, era, or movement may be brought together and given appropriate consideration in the light of its contribution to an over-all understanding of the problems considered. The matrix of the selection of subject matter is found in the nature of the project itself and the level of maturity and interest of the pupils.

Like the laboratory method, the project provides for a wide variety of first-hand experiences. Pupils gain information about the central theme in various ways. They read, take field trips, hold interviews, view instructional films, listen to the radio, carry on experiments, conduct surveys, and compare ideas in discussion groups. As information is collected it is organized in various ways and related to the area under discussion. Students who have been working in many different ways share the results of their efforts with classmates through written and oral stories, by painting pictures, building models, singing, dancing, and by preparing charts and graphs. The expression of ideas is not limited, as in the recitation and lecture, to the verbalization of learned materials. Pupils are encouraged to develop and use a variety of skills in expressing ideas to others.

The project method, unlike the laboratory method, does not attempt to help all pupils solve the same problem or to substantiate a specific hypothesis. It concentrates, instead, on "learning about," on "experiences with," and "activities related to." Like the laboratory method, the project is an approach to learning by

doing. It allows for teaching to begin at the point of interest of a pupil or a group of pupils and develop experiences that are meaningful to them.

The over-all plan of the project is developed by the teacher in advance, as is necessary in all good teaching, but many modifications and adjustments are made as the project unfolds. Preconceived plans formulated by teachers are usually thought of as source units, possible avenues of approach rather than orders to be followed verbatim. The approach to the study of a given project will vary from year to year as the teacher makes adaptations to the abilities of pupils within the group and utilizes the creative impulses and contributions of all pupils.[8]

Scientific studies have indicated that the project is superior to the lecture and recitation as a general pattern of instruction in secondary schools. Results of such studies are especially favorable to the project method when the solution of problems, the development of understandings, and the modification of behavior are objectives sought in teaching.

3. The dramatic method. The dramatic method of teaching, which has a natural appeal to the interests and needs of young people, is frequently employed at the elementary school level and in out-of-school youth groups but often overlooked by secondary school teachers. This method is based on belief that pupils learn best by doing and that the dramatization of experiences has a natural appeal to adolescent youth. Most young people like to take part in school plays. The dramatic method is supported by the theory that experiences can be made real through dramatization. Important principles, generalizations, and conclusions can be given the benefit of an emotionalized treatment that can make for lasting and effective learning.

The dramatic method provides for the dramatization of subject matter, attitudes, understandings, and behavior patterns in such a way that they become realistic to pupils in the light of their recognized needs. Dramatizations may be presented by teachers themselves, but more often they are developed and presented by pupils. In effect, the dramatic method allows dramatization to take the place of recitation and lecture.

[8] The following sources provide discussion of the nature and worth of the project method:

Harold A. Alberty, *A Study of the Project Method in Education*. Columbus, Ohio: The Ohio State University Press, 1938, 111 pp.

———, *Reorganizing the High-School Curriculum*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1947, 443 pp.

James A. Michener, "An Improved Unit Method," *Harvard Educational Review*, 10:211–24, 1940.

The dramatic method has been employed somewhat extensively in the development of school radio programs, especially in the fields of English and social studies. It is also a major method utilized in the development of motion pictures for classroom use. "Assembly" programs apply the dramatic method when they permit pupils to present in dramatic form the material they have been studying. Educational programs in connection with the armed services during World War II made effective use of the dramatic method when it was necessary to teach rapidly certain knowledges, attitudes, and concepts. A negative approach to the same end was the dramatization of mistakes made under typical assignment conditions. By utilizing humorous, over-drawn dramatizations of common errors in gunnery, for example, it was possible to reduce the practice required for eliminating the errors so exposed.

The dramatic method makes ample provision for individual differences, appeals to the natural desire to "belong" in group activity, and affords a variety of avenues for creative expression. It also affords a particularly effective means of creating lasting impressions and suggests a direct approach to ways of effecting changes in behavior.

Co-operative group methods of teaching. Efforts to develop democratic methods that are more adapted to the purposes of secondary education and to the needs and interests of adolescent youth have led to experimentation with three methods of teaching which may be characterized as co-operative group patterns. Such methods place emphasis on co-operative interaction within the group, on healthy pupil-teacher relationships, on shared planning, fact-finding, execution, and evaluation. They are directed toward such outcomes as the development of attitudes, skills, understandings, and behavior patterns appropriate for co-operative living. They find their justification in the theory that the school should be a laboratory in which ability in effective social participation and personal adjustment are the major objectives sought. Co-operative group patterns of teaching are concerned with the composition or dynamics of group interaction. In employing such methods teachers participate with pupils in planning and executing learning activities that establish and put into practice the principles of democratic living.

1. The socialized recitation. Early attempts to develop skills for co-operative living and group techniques for solving problems were centered around a pattern of teaching called the socialized recitation. This method provides opportunities for pupils to work

co-operatively under the guidance of the teacher in gathering information, interpreting data, and sharing the results in a general group discussion, usually under the leadership of a student chairman. In this procedure most attention is given to the recitation itself. Certain aspects of the socialized recitation are similar to those employed in the project method or the recitation, but the actual discussion of results of investigation, and study is carried on during the class period through a general group discussion, with different members of the group serving in various capacities of leadership. One pupil serves as chairman, another acts as general secretary, another may be in charge of the classroom library, and a committee of pupils may arrange the bulletin board. The teacher functions throughout as a consultant or guide who makes suggestions, helps individuals and groups with special problems, and participates in the experiences shared by the group.

2. *Group discussion method.* A second type of co-operative group pattern of teaching is that of group discussion. More and more interest is being shown by teachers in the appropriateness of this method for secondary schools. Group discussion in the classroom is concerned with broader implications than the mere expression of different points of view and the description of experiences. It represents an attempt to direct co-operative thinking toward the solution of recognized common problems. It is an approach to developing through group thinking those cultural characteristics that further and refine the democratic way of living. Because group discussion is an expression of the democratic process, it is argued that the youth of a democratic society should have opportunities in school to develop through actual experiences the abilities and understanding necessary for co-operative participation.

Statements of conditions that support the establishment of effective group discussion and thinking provide further clarification of the group discussion pattern of teaching.[10]

a. Special individual competencies and purposes, as these bear upon the problems, are utilized in order (1) to provide full and free participation by all and (2) to extend the range of reflective efforts.

[10] These statements of conditions were developed by the co-operative efforts of an Ohio State University committee under the leadership of Professor H. Gordon Hullfish. Other members of the committee were Mildred Chapin, Roderick Duchemin, Nouri Jafar, and Lucile Lurry. The report of the committee is contained in a mimeographed statement published by the Department of Education, The Ohio State University, 1947.

b. The group is continually aware of the need to re-define the problem and to re-examine conclusions as additional data or new conditions make this imperative.

c. All ideas should be dealt with in their appropriate status as hypotheses.

d. Each individual should treat the contributions of others with the respect he wishes others to give to his own contributions.

e. The members of the group recognize that they must live by the decisions of the group until such times as these decisions may be changed. This also implies that individuals in a democracy have the right to work to change decisions as new conditions arise and as new facts are uncovered.

In using the group discussion method the teacher functions as a resource leader for a group which seeks within itself the leadership necessary for the furtherance of group effort. The teacher helps to provide continuity, helps to organize for realistic self-analysis and evaluation, and continually seeks to create a setting in which group discussion may be appropriately carried forward. The teacher seeks, also, to help the members of the group accept the responsibility for translating group decisions into patterns of action and behavior.

Teaching in the group discussion method assumes the function of removing obstacles to co-operative thinking, to the resolution of conflicts of personalities and of ideas, to the identification of individual and group needs and to making provisions for all to participate significantly in discussion procedures.[11]

3. Teacher-pupil planning. Probably the best approach to a method of teaching adapted to the function of education in a democratic society is that represented by a type of teaching called teacher-pupil planning, which seeks to create within the school classroom genuine experiences in co-operative living. In this method the teacher and pupils co-operatively share in such aspects of learning as the identification of group and individual goals, the study of social purposes, the identification of basic needs, the planning and development of learning experiences, the collection and application of information related to recognized problems, and the evaluation of group results and individual growth. Through

[11] The reader will find it helpful to expand his knowledge of the group discussion method of teaching by reading the following references:

Edgar Dale and Louis Raths, "Discussion in the Secondary Schools," *Educational Research Bulletin*, 24:1–6, January 17, 1947.

George B. de Huszar, *Practical Applications of Democracy*. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1945, 140 pp.

teacher-pupil planning, young people develop attitudes, modify behavior, analyze knowledges, and perfect skills.

In teacher-pupil planning, teaching is conceived as the practice of democratic leadership. The teacher leads the group to achieve a functional organization, congenial rapport and cohesive group relationships. He studies individual pupils and the climate of the group organization in order to understand the forces that motivate behavior. He guides learning activities, aids members of the group to find suitable means of solving individual and shared problems, and helps interpret information and conclusions. Above all, he helps the group seek and develop its own leadership. Contrary to naive assumption, the teacher does not refuse responsibility in utilizing the methods of teacher-pupil planning. He is continually assuming new and broader responsibilities in meeting the needs of expanding interests and activities within the group. In teacher-pupil planning the total responsibility rests upon the group as a whole. The teacher assumes the function of helping the group recognize its responsibilities. As in any democratic society, the authority of control rests with members of the group itself. Teaching, in performing the function of democratic leadership, helps the group to identify its common problems and to search for procedures and techniques that contribute to the solution of these problems.

Several research studies support the value of teacher-pupil planning as a teaching method for secondary schools. An experiment conducted by Giles [12] in the laboratory school of The Ohio State University substantiated the belief that through teacher-pupil planning pupils learn the attitudes and skills of co-operative living. This study and others have revealed that pupils who were privileged to participate in teacher-pupil planning displayed better social adjustments, showed more consideration of others, were more objective in evaluating results of individual and group processes, were more sensitive to the values of contributions of others, and demonstrated a greater willingness to accept responsibility. Teacher-pupil planning as a method of teaching seems to have wide application in all subject matter fields. An experimental study by Thelan [13] demonstrates that superior learning is ac-

[12] This project together with a collection of descriptions of other experiments in teacher-pupil planning as well as a readable, worthwhile discussion of the relationships of this method of teaching to democratic ideals is included in H. H. Giles, *Teacher-Pupil Planning*. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1941, 395 pp.

[13] Herbert A. Thelan, "A Methodological Study of the Learnings of Chemical Concepts and of Certain Abilities to Think Critically in Freshman Chemistry," *Journal of Experimental Education*, 13:53–75, September, 1944.

complished in a course in high school chemistry, for example, when teacher-pupil planning is employed as the major method of instruction.

Tracing the development of method in secondary schools in the United States has shown the relationship of methods used to the types of schools developed and has included discussions of three principal groups of method—those centered in the teacher, those which are pupil or student centered, and those which are co-operative. Each of the methods discussed may be applied to various teaching situations and to the several levels of secondary teaching; hence they are in accord with the definition of general method presented early in the chapter. They are democratic to the degree that the teacher employing them adheres to the democratic theory of teaching and develops a democratic quality in his work.

Summary

Since the beginning of the American secondary school, the American people have been striving to develop an educational institution which would serve the diverse needs of all youth. After the American colonies won their political freedom and embarked upon the course of developing a democratic society, the achievement of success in these efforts became imperative. Paralleling such efforts have been attempts to visualize and perfect a quality of teaching compatible with accepted principles of democracy. Such efforts are based on the assumption that democratic citizens can be developed only in secondary schools in which teachers employ democratic methods in teaching.

Methods of teaching have progressed from those that were largely authoritarian and paternalistic to those that place increasing emphasis on co-operative procedures which permit and encourage students to learn the skills of social living through democratic experiences in secondary schools. It is common to find, however, a wide range of method employed within the same school. Under one teacher pupils may be subjected to a method of teaching which demands absolute conformity to teacher-directed activities and tends to develop behavior patterns more adapted to despotic societies. Under another teacher in the same school pupils may be permitted to share in the planning, executing, and evaluating of learning experiences. They may be stimulated to develop capacities for independent thought and action; they may find themselves in social situations that emphasize shared respect and shared responsibility. Methods of teaching have changed during

the past half century, and as long as the American people strive to improve and perpetuate democratic concepts of living we may be assured that they will continue to change. Such changes in method will become accelerated as secondary school teaching becomes increasingly sensitive to its major responsibility to society—the development of behavior patterns effective in democratic living.

Changes in teaching method are brought about in two ways. Through programs of in-service education teachers-in-service learn ways of adapting teaching procedures to the theory of democratic education. Although not all teachers are receptive to opportunities for learning to change their method of teaching, thousands of teachers are improving their abilities to live democratically with secondary school youth. Equally important as a means of bringing about changes in method are the programs of pre-service education provided for prospective secondary school teachers. As young people who elect teaching as a career are introduced to theories and practices of democratic education in teacher-education institutions, they have opportunity to gain increased vision with respect to the importance of democratic method in secondary schools. Prospective teachers must be given opportunities to improve their own skills for co-operative living in programs of professional preparation. They need to observe and participate in democratic secondary schools. They need to see at first hand the relationship of methods of teaching to community patterns of living. They need to learn to teach through supervised experience in schools and classrooms that are dedicated to providing democratic experiences for high school youth.

Related Experiences

1. If convenient, arrange for the following film to be shown to your teacher-education group:

Near Home (25 minutes: sound). Distributed by the International Film Bureau, 15 Park Row, New York 7, N. Y. Shows a problem solving approach to the use of community resources in teaching. This film illustrates a number of principles of good teaching.

2. Arrange to see the following filmstrip, if available.

Civilian Conservation Corps (35 frames: 35 mm: silent, with accompanying lecture notes). Distributed by the American Council on Education, Washington, D. C. Photographs show various activities and projects of the CCC. Lecture notes provide information on administration, formation, values and functions on this organization.

A sequence of frames illustrates the need for aid for unemployed young men and boys who were not in school during the 1930's. This filmstrip depicts a competing organization of the secondary school during a period of crisis.

3. Classify the various methods of teaching you have experienced according to the types of method described in this chapter. Compare with other members of your group the type of teaching that predominated in your own educational experiences.

4. Arrange with your class to dramatize some of the methods of teaching you have experienced or which you find described in this chapter and in other resources.

5. Working with other members of your group, see how many of the methods described in this chapter you can find employed by teachers of freshman and sophomore classes in your institution.

6. Attempt to discover the attitudes of high school and college teachers toward *method* by conducting an opinion poll. Ask two college teachers and two secondary school teachers the following questions: What contribution do the methods of teaching that you employ make to the type of learning that takes place in your classes? Do you feel that you had to learn *how* to teach? What helped you most in learning how to teach?

Suggested Readings

ALBERTY, HAROLD, *Reorganizing the High-School Curriculum.* New York: The Macmillan Company, 1947, 458 pp.

BURTON, WILLIAM H., *The Guidance of Learning Activities.* New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1944, 583 pp.

BUTTS, FREEMAN R., *A Cultural History of Education.* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1947, 726 pp.

DALE, EDGAR, AND RATHS, LOUIS, "Discussion in the Secondary Schools," *Educational Research Bulletin,* 24: 1–6, January 17, 1947.

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Progressive Education Association, Committee on Evaluation, *New Methods versus Old in American Education* (G. Derwood Baker, ed.). New York: Columbia University, 1941, 56 pp.

RATHS, LOUIS, "Improving Classroom Discussion," *Educational Research Bulletin,* 24: 6–13, January 17, 1945.

SPEARS, HAROLD, "What Disturbs the Beginning Teacher," *School Review,* 53: 458–463, October, 1945.

THAYER, V. T., *The Passing of the Recitation.* Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1928, 331 pp.

UMSTATTD, J. G., *Secondary School Teaching* (revised). Boston: Ginn and Company, 1944, 488 pp.

Chapter 5

DEMOCRATIC METHODS FOR SECONDARY SCHOOLS

What determines the extent to which a particular method of teaching contributes to the purposes of secondary education? . . . In what aspects of teaching may we look for signs of democratic quality in method? . . . What are the implications of the concept of leadership as a "change agency?" . . . Which principles of democratic teaching are best suited to the realization of the aims of democracy in secondary schools? . . . By what criteria may we evaluate the quality of method employed in secondary schools?

Methods of teaching found in American secondary schools range from those that are characteristically teacher dominated to those that place emphasis upon co-operative relationships between pupils and teacher and among all members of a class.

No teacher employs the same method consistently in all situations, nor would such a practice be desirable. A teacher, particularly at the junior college level, may use the lecture method in such a manner that a genuine contribution is made to the objectives of democratic teaching. It cannot be argued that one method of teaching is always democratic, whereas another is always autocratic. Neither can it be assumed that it would be wise to encourage all teachers to employ identical methods of teaching. Certain characteristic democratic qualities may be found in many different types of method. Such qualities are related to the extent to which teaching contributes to the goals of education in a democratic society. If the *quality* of teaching employed by a teacher is typically democratic, it may be assumed that the teacher is making a contribution to the best educational goals. It is not, then, the particular method of teaching itself, but rather the quality of democratic values incorporated within the method that determines whether the teaching is contributing to the goals of democratic education.

It must be recognized that democratic values and qualities are

more easily developed by some methods than others. The teacher who invariably lectures to his students is handicapped with respect to the introduction of socializing influences into the teaching process. Under such conditions pupils must sit and listen. They are given no opportunity to participate; they must refrain from communicating either with their classmates or with the teacher. In such a situation, however, the teacher may demonstrate an attitude of respect and tolerance toward all members of the group. He may strive to make learning material as meaningful as possible to the pupils, and he may attempt to encourage the development of skills for participation in out-of-class and study situations. On the other hand, the teacher who undertakes to plan all learning experiences *with* pupils has the advantage of actually living co-operatively with them while learning is taking place.

Democratic skills are learned through actual practice. Guidance and appropriate illustrations facilitate the acquisition of such skills. Shared participation by students and teachers is one means of providing opportunities for actual practice. Selection of the method of "teacher-pupil planning" alone will not, however, assure that good quality will exist in the teaching. Even when teacher-pupil planning is the method used, the teacher may set up barriers to democratic living. The teacher may, for example, insist upon exercising final authority in approving or disapproving action taken by the group. Students may be compelled to carry on group activities through the application of external controls. A pupil may co-operate with other pupils, not because he sees the need for such co-operation in terms of the broader goals of living, but because he knows that such behavior is required by the teacher and is most likely to result in a satisfactory mark for the course.

Those methods of teaching that focus attention upon the pupil, his needs, interests and contributions, and those methods which provide for group experiences in living together are most likely to contribute to the development of desirable behavior patterns. Although the choice of method alone will not guarantee that teaching will be democratic, some methods of teaching contribute more than others to this end. The prospective teacher should become familiar with patterns of teaching that lend themselves readily to the realization of social ends. In addition, he will need to develop skill in recognizing and employing techniques that will make any method he may use democratic in quality.

Signs of democratic quality in method. There are certain areas and aspects of teaching procedure where we may profitably look for democratic quality. Most methods of teaching incorporate such

similar instructional details as assignments, motivation, evaluation, and control. When these details are examined they help to reveal the quality of the particular method employed. The student of teaching can become sensitive to presence or absence of democratic quality in actual teaching procedures.

The presence of *democratic quality* is indicated by certain characteristics related to some of the critical areas and activities of teaching suggested in the following:

1. Teacher-pupil relationships. In order to develop the qualities of sympathy and understanding necessary to democratic teaching the teacher is a student of human growth and adjustment. He seeks continually to comprehend the forces that condition the behavior of others. He studies individual pupils systematically and objectively, their attitudes and their problems of adjustment.

2. Rapport within a cohesive group. Existence of shared respect and of feelings of security and belongingness within a group, demonstration of attitudes and practices of tolerance, willingness to acknowledge the contributions of others to the solution of common problems, prevalence of congenial relationships among members of the group, and evidence of shared responsibility of the functioning of the group—all are indicative of a democratic quality in teaching.

3. Theory of learning. The teacher bases his teaching with the concept that learning is a process of adjustment growing out of realistic and objective interpretation of first-hand, as well as vicarious, experiences.

4. Motivation of learning. Where external motivating pressures (i.e., grades, punishments, rewards, threat of failure, social embarrassment, etc.) abound, democratic quality is lacking. The major motivating influence concerns recognition and acceptance by the pupil of goals that are important to him and to his group.

5. Objectives of teaching. Further evidence of the existence of democratic quality is found in the relationship of the actual outcomes of teaching to the goals of democratic living. When a teacher creates a setting for learning and works co-operatively with his pupils in the direction of helping them to develop attitudes and behavior patterns that demonstrate consideration for others, there is evidence that the method he employs possesses democratic quality.

6. Discipline. Shared control is a symptom of democracy. Pupils work co-operatively to determine the policies that govern school behavior. Self-discipline rather than "police" control by the teacher is emphasized. Limitations upon behavior are co-opera-

tively established and accepted with the recognition that they are for the best interests of the group.

7. *Evaluation of growth.* Symptoms of democratic quality in method are found in the evaluation of growth in terms of individual differences in interests, abilities, and personal goals with consideration for the continuing growth and adjustment of the learner. Co-operative evaluation by the teacher and student is further evidence of democratic quality.

By systematic observation and analysis of an example of teaching, one may discover whether the signs of democratic qualities are sufficiently in evidence to make a contribution to the goals of secondary education in a democratic society. The observer who is alert to aspects of teaching in which the signs of democratic quality are most readily apparent will experience little difficulty in determining whether a particular example of teaching is making a contribution to the goals of democratic living.

Two samples of teaching are described briefly in the following incidents. These incidents are typical of many other samples of teaching which are being repeated daily in American secondary schools.

An example of authoritative teaching in a twelfth grade. An assignment had been made the previous day in American literature, "Read ten poems by Whittier and memorize twenty lines which appeal to you." At the beginning of the class period the teacher called the class roll to be answered with "prepared" or "unprepared" and recorded a mark of plus or zero for each pupil according to the response given. Then she asked for names of poems read by certain pupils, and after these were recited in a glib but uninterested manner, she called on different pupils for recitation of the lines they had memorized.

After some half-dozen had quoted their twenty lines with varying degrees of success, the teacher called upon John who began faltering and could not recall more than four lines. With no inquiry into the cause for failure she wrote his name on the blackboard under a heading, "Those who are to report after school," and called on the next student.

Before the twenty-three members of the class had a chance to recite, the teacher noticed that the class period had only three more minutes to run so made the following assignment:

"For tomorrow, study the chapter in your text on Whittier and be able to answer the questions at the end of the chapter." She

added, "Those who did not get to recite today will do so tomorrow." The class was then dismissed by the teacher.

Evidently this teacher felt that she was considering the interests of the pupils by letting them choose the lines to be memorized from the poems they chose to read. If asked why such an assignment was made as an introduction to the study of Whittier she may have answered that she did not believe in dictating to pupils, that they should be allowed to make their own choices. If questioned why she made the same assignment to all she could have answered that the "fair" way is to treat children equally, or that she was following a course of study that called for such an assignment.

According to the aspects of teaching discussed in this section, criticisms of this incident can be made as follows:

The teacher-pupil relationship was simply one of "command and obey without comment." The teacher did not know that John's mother was ill and that he had to prepare the evening meal besides looking after a younger brother after school the day before. Nor did she know his research paper in history was overdue and that he felt he must finish it during the previous evening before going to bed late, that the four lines he had partially memorized were some his father read to him while he ate breakfast.

There was no evidence of the existence of effort to meet the need for group rapport. Each pupil was mainly interested in the effect his recitation had on the teacher and his future mark. He recited to the teacher, not for the class, and could have done equally well or even better if the other pupils had not been in the class.

The teacher's objective for the day, "to arouse an interest in the poetry of Whittier," had little relation to the goals of democratic living. If the teacher had a theory of learning, it was probably that learning is a matter of memorization.

Motivation was external. The mere recording of a plus or zero from the response to roll call was, it seemed, the only stimulus toward striving to learn what had been assigned. Pupils wished to get a plus so that a grade would be good at a later time. Oral responses of "unprepared" would have been embarrassing for some of the class members.

Discipline consisted of teacher control exercised by the use of "stay-in" lists as a deterrent to talking or inattention. No evaluation was made except in the mind of the teacher. Individual differences in ability to memorize were ignored. Pupils who

memorized easily and recited without hesitance or embarrassment were given good marks. Those who had honestly tried but found memorizing difficult or Whittier's poetry uninteresting were "rewarded" by a low mark.

The end of the period found the students no closer together as a group, no farther along in their growth toward democratic living, but merely glad that another lesson in literature had ended, although it had made no contribution toward increasing their literary appreciation or their understanding of the place of the writings of Whittier in American life. Since no comments were made by students it is not known whether some of them had become interested enough that they would like to read more of his poetry or to discuss what they had read with other members of the group.

An example of democratic teaching at the junior college level. A class in college algebra in a junior college was studying the fundamental process of fractions. Some members of the group were taking the course merely to satisfy an arts degree requirement; others had elected the course because they felt that it would prepare them for courses in science; a third group consisted of pre-engineers; still another group was studying the course because they planned to become teachers of mathematics in secondary schools.

The problem around which learning activities were being developed was "how to simplify complex fractions." The class period began with a report by a committee of four students, representing each of the groups above concerning the values inherent to the need for and use of complex fractions in relation to the goals of the various groups. After each member of the committee had reported students asked questions, made suggestions, or offered disagreements with the findings of the committee. At the conclusion of the committee report the instructor summarized the discussion as follows: "Our committee and you seem to have decided that the simplification of complex fractions is a process which holds most value for those students who plan to teach mathematics in high schools or who plan to be engineers."

Further discussion and agreement led to a decision by the group and the teacher that those students who were interested in and felt the need for developing skill in simplifying complex fractions plan together extensive experiences that would afford them opportunities for acquiring such skill. At one point the instructor cautioned that those students who nominally planned to be teachers of mathematics or engineers, but who found themselves un-

interested and unchallenged by such an opportunity, might wish to re-evaluate their choice of professional goals. Before the period ended it was agreed that members of the class who found themselves interested in the study of complex fractions would begin immediately to organize themselves into a study group, while other students who did not elect to study problems in this area would plan alternate experiences related to mathematical concepts that would be more meaningful to them. The instructor indicated that he would divide his time during the class period between the needs of the two study groups.

In this teaching situation, in a course which typically is thought of as a course that demands teacher-domination, we find a situation in which the instructor had created a setting for co-operative planning and shared decision making. Differences in interests, vocational plans, ability, and attitude were recognized and respected. Symptoms of external motivation were not in evidence. Interest based upon recognition of need rather than desire to receive a high grade in the course was the principal motivating factor. The instructor functioned as a guide, consultant and conciliator. He provided inspiration, encouragement, help with the identification of learning problems, synthesis of findings, and appropriate illustration.

Democratic methods lead to democratic teaching. We have already seen in Chapter 2 that the function of education in a democratic society is that of helping the young to develop competence for democratic living. It is against this background of function that we must ask ourselves, What do teachers do when they teach? How do teachers know when they actually are teaching and when they have taught? What are the characteristics and qualities of effective teaching?

Since in a democratic society the major purpose of teaching is to help the student learn how to live democratically and since this goal is best accomplished through learning experiences which are themselves good examples of democratic living, teaching in such a society is defined as the practice of democratic leadership. Leadership in a democracy is conceived as a process of helping groups of people work co-operatively in the identification and achievement of common goals. In practical operation democratic processes do not depend wholly upon single individuals or groups of individuals for leadership. In short, they use the contributions of all members of the group that are germane to the purposes sought. Leadership becomes, then, a process of helping to guide and stimulate

group thinking, helping to further analyze and evaluate group endeavors. Leadership thus conceived functions as a "change agency" in democratic group thinking and planning. It performs the task of helping people who are working to achieve group goals, to analyze the probable consequences of group decisions, and to alter courses of action in terms of desired and anticipated outcomes. Teaching as democratic leadership becomes, in the light of these considerations, a process of guidance, of shared participation, and of co-operative analysis and evaluation, as shown below.

A fuller understanding of the meaning of democratic method may be gained from examining the principles which support democratic teaching in secondary schools.

FUNCTION OF DEMOCRATIC METHOD

The student . . . through participation in democratic experiences . . . becomes . . . an effective *democratic citizen.*

WITH THE HELP OF

the teacher . . . who assists and guides in the planning, executing, analyzing, evaluating of learning experiences . . . through . . . *democratic methods of teaching.*

Activities in Democratic Teaching

Each kind of method in teaching is based, either consciously or unconsciously, on certain principles which provide its direction. A principle may be thought of as a *rule of action* that serves the purpose of formulating appropriate procedures for operational situations. Since the source of principles of teaching must necessarily be the goals toward which the teaching is directed, principles of democratic teaching must provide direction toward the objectives of secondary education in a democratic society. Some suggestions which offer direction to democratic teaching follow:

1. Study pupils in order to understand their wide variety of attitudes, differences, ambitions, patterns of behavior, and frustrations.

2. Assist groups of individuals to achieve a common goal of group rapport based on mutual understanding, appreciation, respect, and tolerance.

3. Help each member of a group achieve security through the knowledge that he is accepted, that he is wanted, that he is needed, and that his contributions, interests, and abilities are appreciated and respected by other members of the group.

4. Provide for co-operative work with pupils in identifying common goals that are meaningful and functional to members of the group, related to the purposes of education, and which provide ample opportunities for meeting the personal needs of individual members of the group.

5. Help the group create a setting for learning that invites creative expression, mutual encouragement, participation by all, and that encourages individual and group activities.

6. Assist groups and individuals to develop learning activities that contribute to the achievement of recognized purposes.

7. Develop leadership within the group and help the group utilize the leadership contributions of all.

8. Help members of the group to select appropriate activities, materials, procedures adapted to the needs, abilities, interests, and backgrounds of the various members of the group.

9. Help individuals remove or overcome frustrations and inhibitions to learning and to achieve active, successful, and happy group participation.

10. Work co-operatively with groups to analyze, interpret, and evaluate the results of learning experiences to the end that new goals may be identified and techniques of learning and group living may be refined.

11. Search for ways of helping individuals and groups to develop meaningful and reasonable standards of behavior.

12. Help members of the group determine the effect of learning experiences on the group and on individual members of the group.

13. Study co-operatively with other teachers human behavior, growth, and adjustment.

14. Share with other teachers, pupils, parents, and school administrators the responsibility for identifying appropriate goals and procedures for learning.

15. Accept counselling from others in order that personal problems and needs may be identified and adjustment may be maintained.

Criteria for Evaluating the Quality of Method

Even though symptoms of democratic qualities are found in particular aspects of method we cannot be positive that the teaching is actually achieving democratic goals without the application of more specific criteria. In evaluating teaching it must be kept in mind that the total effect of teaching, over an extended period of time, is more important than unrelated practices and procedures. A teacher who understands young people is more likely to be concerned about their relationships within a class group. Likewise, a group that has developed healthy, cohesive relationships presents a setting more conducive to the development of democratic behavior patterns. But it does not always hold that isolated symptoms of democratic qualities in teaching are indicative of the total effect of the teaching in a given situation.

The following questions are presented as suggestive criteria for evaluating the extent to which democratic qualities exist in teaching:

1. Does the teacher accept emotionally all individuals within the group?
2. Is the teacher able to help all members of the group achieve satisfying relationships, the feeling of belonging and of being needed, security, and shared respect within the atmosphere of democratic group setting?
3. Is teaching conceived as a process of guiding human development?
4. Are the objectives sought by pupils and the teacher the goals of democratic living?
5. Is teaching concerned with helping pupils achieve functional goals which they, themselves, recognize as important?
6. Does the approach to teaching employed respect the interests, personal and social needs, and individual differences of all members of the group?
7. Does the teaching respect each pupil's right of self-determinism within the limitation of his maturity and ability?
8. Are all members of the group permitted to share in the formulation of policies which concern their school living and learning?

9. Are school experiences concerned with the development of attitudes, the establishment of values, the promotion of understanding, and the refinements of habits of thinking which result in self-directed behavior changes?

10. Is the evaluation of growth conceived as a co-operative process which the pupil shares with other pupils with the teacher serving as a guide and counsellor?

11. Is every function of teaching concerned with developing happy, secure, well-adjusted individuals capable of self-directed integration within a co-operative group and devoted to the theory and ideals of democratic living?

Summary

Democratic quality in teaching requires constant vigilance on the part of the teacher. Democracy in teaching, like democracy in life, is an approach rather than an established procedure. Its development cannot be accomplished in a brief program of preservice education for teachers. It is not a technique or a particular method of teaching which can be mastered for future use. It is a way of living with young people while teaching them.

The teacher at any level—junior high school, high school, or junior college—must face the responsibility of developing methods of teaching that are democratic in quality and purpose. Fulfillment of this responsibility is a paramount professional obligation. The degree to which teachers achieve this goal will determine very largely the extent to which the school fulfills its designated purpose.

Prospective teachers may have ample opportunity to analyze the quality of democratic teaching in actual situations in secondary schools. Such quality of teaching can be achieved by teachers (1) who are thoroughly loyal and completely dedicated to the democratic way of life; (2) who understand the implication for education of the theory of democracy; (3) who themselves have perfected the skills of democratic living; (4) who understand the function of method; (5) who have developed ability to analyze quality of teaching employed; and (6) who understand the principles that support democratic teaching.

Related Experiences

1. If possible arrange for the showing of the following films:
Autocracy and Democracy (30 minutes: silent). Produced and Distributed by Iowa State University, Ames, Iowa. A documentary report

of "Experimental Studies in Social Climates of Groups." The relative effectiveness of democratic, autocratic, and laissez-faire leadership in youth club groups.

Children Must Learn (13 minutes: sound). Distributed by the New York University Film Library, 26 Washington Place, New York 3, N. Y. This film shows a farm family in Kentucky, poorly clothed and inadequately housed, living on poor land. The one-room school the children attend is meagerly furnished, crude, and ill-adapted to the needs of living.

2. Visit schools in your college community to see how many of the principles of democratic teaching listed in this chapter you can find operative in classroom practice. Compare your findings with those obtained by other members of your group.

3. Visit your own campus laboratory school or a nearby school for the purpose of observing the symptoms of democratic quality in teaching procedures according to the critical areas suggested.

4. Using criteria for evaluating the quality of teaching as a guide, evaluate the methods of a teacher in a nearby school or in one of your own college classes. Compare the results with those obtained by other members of your group.

Note: In applying these evaluative criteria or any others you are urged to maintain high standards of professional ethics. As a prospective teacher you are expected for the sake of your own preparation to visit teachers in your own laboratory school and in other schools in the area and in your state. In no instance, however, should you disclose your findings to anyone other than those directly concerned with guiding your professional growth or to your own fellow prospective teachers who are sharing with you the experiences of becoming a teacher.

Suggested Readings

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Part 2

UNDERSTANDING YOUTH—THEIR LIVING AND LEARNING

Chapter 6

FORMING NEW ACQUAINTANCES—TEACHERS MEET YOUTH

What evidence supports the belief that the success of teachers is directly related to their knowledge of those whom they teach? . . . Show that teachers as a group do not understand adolescent youth. . . . What approaches may teachers make toward becoming acquainted with youth? . . . Why is it better to study intensively one or two normal adolescents than to be concerned primarily with the general characteristics of the adolescent population? . . . What is the best single source of information about an individual youth? . . . In what situations other than the classroom should teachers observe youth? . . . What personal and professional equipment are needed by teachers in order to study adolescents? . . . What are the characteristic common needs of youth? . . . What needs of individual youth should be understood by teachers?

Effective human relationships are based intrinsically upon acquaintance, understanding, and mutual respect. As we come to know better the pupils we teach, we increase our concern for their personal interests, attitudes, and recognized needs. When we know young people and their problems and concerns, we are able to adapt our teaching to the factors in their lives that condition their behavior and motivate their learning.

Studies of Teacher-Student Relationships

Several carefully controlled studies have produced results that indicate that the best teachers are those who know most about the pupils they teach. Bush,[1] in studying teacher-pupil relationships, found surprising inconsistencies between the relationships teachers thought they maintained with given pupils and the at-

[1] Robert N. Bush, "A Study of Student-Teacher Relationships," *Journal of Educational Research*, 35: 645–56, 1942.

titudes held by those same pupils toward their teachers. For example, one teacher who thought he was well-accepted by certain members of his class was found, upon analyzing rating sheets filled out by these students, to be seriously disliked by those with whom he thought his relationship was excellent. Conversely, certain pupils were found to respond favorably to teachers who were completely unaware of such favorable reactions.

By using carefully developed measuring instruments Bush was able to determine, also, the relationship between the amount of knowledge each teacher possessed about individual pupils and the degree of rapport maintained with those same pupils. He found that some teachers had effective relationships with a large number of their pupils, whereas others maintained rapport with only a few members of the groups under their instruction. The teachers who knew most about their pupils and who were most sympathetic to their individual needs and interests maintained, on the average, effective personal relationships with a larger number of pupils than did teachers whose concern was largely with knowledge of the subject matter they taught.

Teaching effectiveness and relation of teachers to pupils. Brookover [2] conducted an extensive study designed to determine whether a student who maintained a high degree of person-to-person interaction (as measured by a Person-Person Rating Scale constructed by Brookover) with a given teacher also ranked that teacher high as an instructor. (The Purdue Rating Scale, a standardized scale for measuring effectiveness of teaching, was employed as the instrument for rating teacher success). This study shows further comparisons to ascertain whether teachers who showed a high degree of person-to-person interaction with many pupils were also rated high, on the average, as instructors. The results in both instances showed a significantly high positive relationship between a high rating on the Person-Person Rating Scale and a high rating on the Purdue Rating Scale of teaching success. Teachers who maintained the best personal relationships with the greatest number of pupils were considered by the pupils, themselves, to be the better teachers.

Pupil growth—an outcome of teacher understanding. A third investigation that lends support to the position that superior teachers are those who know and understand their pupils best is

[2] Wilbur B. Brookover, "Person-Person Interaction Between Teachers and Pupils and Teaching Effectiveness," *Journal of Educational Research*, 34:272–87, December, 1940.

that by Ojeman and Wilkinson [3] which is concerned with the effect of increasing the amount of knowledge and understanding of pupil problems possessed by the teacher. The investigators selected groups of thirty-three pupils equated on the basis of achievement, intelligence, and sex. The experimental variable for one group was simply an increased knowledge on the part of the teacher of the motives, psychological equipment, home background, attitudes, emotional control, and evidences of frustration of the pupils taught. Information about pupils in the experimental group was provided to the teacher by guidance counsellors, psychologists, and visiting teachers. Information of this nature was not provided about members of the control group. No conscious effort was made by the teacher to vary the type of teaching for the two groups.

Differences shown in the results of pre-tests, final tests, and in planned observations were the data upon which conclusions were based. The results revealed that the experimental group—in which a greater knowledge of the pupils by the teacher was the only experimental factor—made a significantly greater scholastic gain over the control group; that is, the experimental group actually mastered more subject matter than the control group. Likewise, pupils in the experimental group showed a better attitude toward school, demonstrated a greater amount of mutual acceptance, exhibited fewer feelings of personal inferiority, showed a decrease in personality maladjustments, and seemed to possess a more logical motivation toward school work. Teachers reported that their attitudes toward pupils in the experimental groups as well as their methods of handling such pupils improved as they gained deeper understanding of pupils.

Although a growing amount of evidence supports the premise that good teachers are those who know their pupils best, several studies have produced results that suggest that many of us, even those with several years of experience, do not fully understand the students we teach. This is a surprising condemnation of our profession in view of the fact that we spend a major share of our waking hours with young people. How, then, we may ask, can we fail to know and understand our pupils? The answer to this question depends upon numerous factors, but of one contributing cause to our failure to understand those we teach we can be fairly certain: frequently those of us who teach in secondary school have

[3] R. H. Ojeman and F. R. Wilkinson, "The Effect on Pupil Growth of an Increase in Teacher Understanding of Pupil Behavior," *Journal of Experimental Education,* 8:143–147, December, 1939.

not been sufficiently interested in young people. We have been endeavoring to teach subjects—not young people. Frequently we are concerned with pupils only as they serve as receptors for the verbalization of knowledge. Evidences that many of us do not understand adolescent youth are apparent in such practices as the following:

1. Adoption of uniform standards in high school courses related to the memorization of subject matter.
2. Grouping pupils arbitrarily with respect to ability to learn and without regard to the total effect upon individuals.
3. Characterization of pupils who fail to respond to typical subject matter programs as "lazy," "shiftless," and "uninterested."
4. Use of lock-step methods of teaching.
5. Tendency to superimpose upon students standards of conduct that are acceptable to us.
6. Unwillingness to study the pupils we teach.
7. Lack of co-ordination between the home and the school. Many teachers have never visited the homes of their pupils.
8. Insistence of teachers upon teaching in one particular subject field rather than teaching one particular group of students. High school teachers must teach many pupils daily, but this condition is a direct result of our demands made that we be permitted to teach *only* English, or history, or mathematics.
9. Treatment of behavior symptoms rather than consciously studying the underlying causes of behavior.
10. Acceptance of verbalization as the major goal of school learning.
11. Tendency to catalogue high school youth into a few rather rigid categories. We are likely to think of youth as being fit or unfit for college; as being dull or bright; as being academic or nonacademic in terms of ability; as being good or bad; as being co-operative or unco-operative; as being leaders or followers; as being students or pupils; as being dependable or undependable; as being mature or immature; as being responsible or irresponsible.

Formal studies confirm individual and informal observations that many teachers often fail to realize the importance of knowing their students. We have been so impressed with the necessity of teaching subject matter that often we have neglected to make sufficient effort to understand the learner toward whom our teaching was directed.

The Teacher—A Student of Youth

Professional growth is furthered through studying youth and learning how to help them understand themselves. Success in studying youth is most readily achieved through co-operative association with other teachers who are also studying youth.

Understanding youth—common concern of all teachers. Understanding young people of secondary school age is a major responsibility of teachers. Adolescents, themselves, their needs and problems of living, represent the only common meeting ground for teachers, pupils, and parents in relation to secondary education. We may disagree about traditional or progressive schools, about college preparation or noncollege courses of study, about so-called academic subjects and nonacademic subjects, about systems of promotion, marking, grouping; but in youth we find common interests and the basis for mutual understanding and co-operative effort.

Continuing professional growth through studying youth. The joys that teachers have traditionally received from teaching have been related to the task of studying and coming to understand better the fascinating personalities of many different kinds of young people. The teacher who remains a vital, stimulating personality is one who studies his pupils. Those of us who are interested largely in the teaching of subject matter, who are more concerned with the perpetuation of institutional form than the actual solution of problems of people, and who attempt to hide from our insecurities behind the enforcement of arbitrary standards, soon become dull, warped personalities, and unhappy, self-pitying people.

Great teachers have always taken their inspiration from the youth with whom they were privileged to associate. The person who hopes to find happiness and satisfaction in teaching must do so through a genuine interest in learning more and more about individual students, their problems, hopes, aspirations, needs, and frustrations. The greatest joy in teaching, as in other life situations, is derived from helping others.

Learning to help youth understand themselves. Adolescent youth face no greater problem than that of understanding themselves. Secondary school teachers are privileged to share and to give guidance in *this* great experience. In order to help students understand themselves we must first of all master the techniques of becoming acquainted with individual youth. We must learn how to analyze the social climate that results when individuals live

and work together. We must develop skill in helping others to identify significant personal and group problems. As we improve our skill in studying young people, we develop the background necessary for helping young people examine the forces that affect their growth and adjustment to each other and to the life of adult society.

Ways of Becoming Acquainted with Youth

Responsibility for becoming acquainted with youth necessitates development by teachers of suitable techniques and appropriate knowledge and skills for studying young people. As students of human development, teachers need to gain knowledge relative to the broad scientific generalizations by which we endeavor to explain human behavior. We need, also, to master the research techniques that make possible the study of individuals. It is important that the teacher constantly search for an increased understanding of the various ways in which adolescents grow into maturity and of the numerous factors which influence their behavior.

Utilizing varied approaches to the study of youth. Several approaches to the study of youth are available to the teacher.

1. Studying about characteristics of adolescent youth. By reading, listening to lectures, and participating in systematic study programs led by experts, teachers may become acquainted with the significant generalizations related to adolescent growth and development. Through this approach, attention can be given to the various kinds and typical range of individual differences expected in heterogeneous groups of young people. Characteristics of the various stages of maturation through which adolescents pass can be studied. From the literature in the field it is possible to learn how interest levels of youth change and to become acquainted with common problems faced by adolescents in making social adjustments.

This approach is concerned not with the study of particular adolescents, but rather with a survey of differences that exist among young people in general. Unless teachers learn how to use information gained through this approach in the study of particular pupils whom they teach, it will contribute little to an increased understanding of youth in a school situation.

2. Studying the student population in a particular school. Teachers usually have access to information relative to the char-

acteristics of the total pupil population enrolled in a secondary school. They may learn, for example, the following:

(a) The number of students who remain in school until graduation.

(b) Certain health characteristics of the group—that the school has a good dental record, that the incidence of communicable disease is below or above the national average.

(c) The number of youth who are referred to the juvenile court during a specific period.

(d) The per cent of students who are members of churches and the frequency of their church attendance.

(e) The number of graduates who enter college.

(f) The distribution by type of home backgrounds of students in terms of father's occupation or profession and with respect to the socio-economic status of the home itself.

(g) The per cent of high school youth who work part time.

(h) Typical vocational choices that are made by youth of the particular community.

(i) How the secondary school population is distributed in the so-called "academic" curriculum and in the various "practical" curricula.

This approach to the study of youth is useful in helping plan curricular revisions related to the characteristics of a given pupil population. It has the somewhat obvious limitation as a procedure for studying individual youth in that the characteristics, needs, problems, and attitudes of individual pupils are lost in a maze of educational statistics. This procedure helps us to become acquainted with the conditions existing in a given pupil population but provides little assistance in understanding a particular young person.

3. Studying norms and ranges of differences within a class group. We have often approached the task of studying youth by analyzing the characteristics of a particular group of pupils. This approach involves comparing the scores of a group on various standardized measuring instruments with the norm established by scores made on the same tests by comparable students in other schools. Verbal intelligence, vocational interests, social beliefs, achievement in subject areas, and maturation status are typical of the characteristics studied. Attention is frequently focused on how well the group compares with other groups who are studying the same subject. Not infrequently, teachers feel that their major responsibility is to help pupils who are below the class and national norm in terms

marriage. Adolescent youth need to achieve knowledges and skills, and to recognize values that contribute to the improvement of relationships within family groups.

5. Economic skills. All youth need to develop useful skills that qualify them for participation in the economic life of their society. They need to analyze their own competencies for vocational participation. They must choose appropriate vocational goals and plan progress toward their attainment.

Youth need basic knowledges and understandings of the functions of labor management. They need to recognize the relationship of social control to economic balance and wholesome working and living conditions.

All youth need opportunities to try out their work skills under actual employment conditions and competent supervision. They need to develop attitudes and work habits that contribute to successful achievement.

6. Problem-solving ability. Intelligent solution of problems depends on development of skill in employing the scientific method. Youth need to learn techniques that make possible the solution of personal and social problems. They need to learn to be objective, to develop habits of fact finding, the power of critical analysis, and willingness to make honest judgments. They need, also, to cultivate the ability to suspend judgment in the face of insufficient evidence.

7. Expanded personal interests. Effective and wholesome living is directly related to the breadth and depth of an individual's interests. Youth need opportunities to explore and to identify their interests and to develop new interests. They need avenues for the expression of their ideas and creative impulses in such fields as music, art, games, literature, construction, and public service.

8. Capacity for self-direction. The ability to think, to judge, to act for oneself are fundamental needs of citizens in a democratic society. Adolescents need to develop the ability to choose their own courses of action, to make independent decisions, to live their own lives within the setting of co-operative activities.

Primarily, self-direction is a characteristic trait of adulthood. Adolescent youth in the process of becoming adults seek independence and freedom from paternalistic control. Such freedom is gained through a willingness and ability to assume responsibility, through acceptance of consequences of decisions, and through the development of the capacity for intelligent self-direction.

9. Personal values. Each youth needs continuously to draw out of his experiences values that become for him a code of ethics

—a personal philosophy—for living. Such values give direction to behavior and serve to explain it.

10. Ability to act upon convictions. All youth need to develop the capacity and habits of acting upon personal convictions. When youth develop the ability to think, when they come to recognize values that they accept as valid, they need to act in accordance with resulting convictions. To fail to do so often results in frustrations that eventually lead to cynicism, withdrawal, and possibly personal disintegration. Youth need to learn to express their social convictions in appropriate social action. As a corollary ability, adolescents need to develop the capacity to recognize and accept the consequences of acting in terms of their consciously accepted values.

These common needs faced by all youth place a heavy responsibility upon secondary school teaching. It must be remembered that even though all youth possess these needs, they will not all satisfy them in exactly the same ways nor to the same extent, at the same level of maturity, or by the same rate of progress. Students need help in ascertaining which of these needs are most pressing at a given time in terms of specific situations. Individual youth should be provided guidance in evaluating the degree to which they have satisfied various needs.

Individual needs of youth. In addition to those common to all, needs exist that are peculiar to given individuals. These usually grow out of differences in stage of maturation, physical development and health conditions, social and economic background, emotional characteristics, and vocational plans. They may be related to such factors as moral and religious traits, work habits, capacities, abilities, interests, ambitions and goals, opportunities for out-of-school experiences, and progress in achievement.

Summary

Studies show that teachers who know their students best are judged by students, adminstrators, and supervisors as superior teachers. Various examples of educational practice (for instance, grouping students arbitrarily, maintaining uniform standards, and adapting students to subject-matter instruction) stand out as evidence that in the past we have not been seriously concerned with understanding how our pupils feel.

Five approaches are commonly employed in studying youth: (1) studying characteristics of youth; (2) studying the student

of measured achievement. Effort is made, for example, to speed up the learning of retarded pupils to the point that they, too, can make a score equal to the norm. Frequently, our devotion to this task causes us to fail to take recognition of the statistical fact that any "normal" group contains as many below the average as above it. Here, again, in following the approach of comparing groups of students to established norms for various traits, we may fail to become acquainted with individual youth as a result of being too conscious about the composite characteristics of the entire group.

4. Studying individual youth who are "in trouble." It is customary in many secondary schools to make case studies of pupils who consistently fail to adjust themselves to the routine of the school. If the school sponsors a guidance program, a counselor will likely take the initiative in conducting such a study of an individual pupil; if not, a teacher or the school principal may accept the responsibility. The usual objective of such study is to discover factors in the pupil's background that are underlying causes of maladjustment in order that appropriate remedial procedures may be undertaken. This approach to the study of youth is difficult for the beginning teacher because it requires a highly developed competency for clinical counseling as well as a broad acquaintance with a variety of complex factors that influence antisocial behavior. The usefulness of this method of studying youth in a teaching situation is limited because of its clinical nature and the fact that only those students who are maladjusted are given attention.

5. Studying one or two normal youth. The single approach to the study of adolescent youth that has been found most helpful to teachers in learning to understand pupils is that of studying intensively one or two normal students over an extended period of time. Extensive experimentation by the Commission on Teacher Education of the American Council on Education and the University of Chicago's Committee on Child Development produced significant suggestions of ways of becoming acquainted with individual students.[4]

Fundamental to this approach is the belief that intensive study of a few individual youth over an extended period will so sensitize the teacher to the needs and problems of all young people that he will be able to make application of his developing understandings in his relationships with all pupils. Although it is helpful to know the general characteristics of all youth, it is more important to

[4] Commission on Teacher Education; *Helping Teachers Understand Children.* Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1945, 468 pp.

know that no two youth are alike. By studying one pupil intensively the teacher becomes aware, perhaps for the first time, even though he is an experienced teacher, of the way one adolescent actually feels about life. Through this approach we observe the manner in which one student responds under varying circumstances; we search for the underlying causes of overt behavior, and we seek to identify pressures that supply motivation.

Through the study of individual youth it is possible to develop techniques of studying all high school pupils. As a result of understanding one or two pupils we improve our ability to understand other adolescents. We discover in this process the various kinds of data that are needed in order to understand a particular child, and we become conscious of the need for creating learning situations that permit young people to develop mutually effective and satisfying personal relationships. We come to recognize, also, in appropriate relationship to other factors, the teacher's role as a student of, and a guide to, human growth and development. Through the study of individual young people the full significance of the premise that *behavior is caused* is comprehended. This type of personal study helps us to understand that becoming acquainted with youth involves searching for basic causes of behavior in order that treatment may be based on objective conditions.

Gathering facts about individual adolescents. To understand a particular youth it is necessary to gather a vast amount of objective evidence about him as an individual and about his adjustment in a given social climate. If hasty judgments and generalizations about young people are to be avoided, facts must be assembled that make possible accurate and fair interpretations of student behavior. First of all, it is important to be aware of the various ways in which facts about individual pupils may be assembled. Some of the more common procedures follow:

1. By observing the reactions of a pupil in different situations. By studying objectively the pupil's total behavior pattern in related and contrasting social settings and by identifying typical and atypical behavior patterns, it is possible to gain a clearer understanding of the pupil's true nature. In order to make observation effective it is essential to develop the ability to recognize significant behavior symptoms and to record them objectively and accurately for future use. Judgments and interpretations must be consciously withheld until sufficient evidence has been gathered to furnish a reliable basis for understanding.

In observing the behavior of an individual youth, we should be particularly sensitive to responses to work and play situations,

to acceptance of responsibility, to associations with friends, participation in group projects, expressions of feelings of security, and to reactions to frustrating situations. Characteristic ways of acting, expressing ideas, and of revealing tensions are significant data that should be recorded. Anecdotal records serve the function of preserving representative indications of the ways in which youth respond to particular types of situations. These records consist of brief stories that describe critical incidents objectively and succinctly. By conscious effort it is possible to learn to record behavior accurately and objectively without passing judgment or without rationalizing the causes of the particular actions observed.[5]

Two types of descriptions of behavior of secondary school youth are listed below. A comparison will reveal the differences in ability of the two teachers who recorded the incidents to report objectively and specifically the behavior observed.

Emotionalized and Subjective Interpretations of Observations.

Phyllis is a bright girl, but is too boy-crazy to be interested in school. She spends all her time trying to attract the attention of boys. Someone should talk to her.

Lloyd comes from a bad home; his parents do not care what he does; he always chooses "trash" for company; the sooner he quits schools, the better it will be for him and for the school.

Accurate Statements of What Was Observed.

Today, Susan asked Pete to help her re-arrange the bulletin board. Pete said, "I'm going to help Tom right now." To which Susan replied, "Ah, come on, I'll bet you are just afraid to work with girls."

On Thursday I went with Mrs. Black, the visiting teacher, to call on Elwood's mother. When she found that we were interested in her boy she took time out from doing a heavy washing to talk with us about him. She told us that Elwood's father works only part-time as a night watchman and that she must "take in washing" in order to keep their home together. When we were ready to leave her small, old, but clean house, Elwood's mother said, "We appreciate your

[5] For extensive illustrations of how one group of teachers improved their ability to observe and record behavior accurately, see Staff of the Division of Child Development and Teacher Personnel, Commission on Teacher Education, *Helping Teachers Understand Children*. Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1945, 468 pp.

Emotionalized Interpretations *(continued)*	Accurate Statements *(continued)*
	help with our boy; he really hasn't had the best chance, you know, but we do want him to stay in school."
Ray is just both plain stupid and lazy. He never pays attention and isn't interested in anything. He always resents everything people do to help.	Again today Russell sat during the supervised study period looking out the window. On a hunch I asked him if he would be interested in reading the new book that was placed in our classroom library by the PTA called *Growing into Maturity*. He took the book, thumbed through it, then turned to one of the chapters and began to read. At the end of the period he said, "You care if I take this here book home with me tonight?"

2. *Conferences with parents.* Parents are co-operative when they find that teachers are genuinely interested in understanding their children. The influence of parents is of such magnitude in the lives of adolescent youth that it is impossible to understand a particular child without an acquaintance with his parents. An informal, friendly visit with parents will reveal significant facts about the student that, when interpreted in their appropriate relationship to his life outside the home, provide a more objective basis for understanding forces that cause particular types of behavior.

3. *Personal interviews.* When we have established good rapport with pupils we may gain pertinent information bearing upon their personal adjustment through personal interviews. Usually the interview is most effective when it grows out of a natural need for co-operative consideration of plans, problems, or decisions. Objective records of interviews are kept for future reference.

4. *School records.* Important objective information about students will be found in school cumulative records. Here will usually be found a record of the pupil's past history in school, including attendance and progress in various school subjects; the report of health examinations and a general record of health conditions; a record of participation in school activities; evidence of

previous leadership responsibilities in school; and, in addition, the result of standardized tests that the pupil has taken in the past.

5. Systematic use of standardized measuring instruments. Results of standarized measuring instruments such as the following will be helpful in understanding the pupil:

(a) Achievement tests in subject fields.
(b) Measures of mental ability.
(c) Physical fitness indexes.
(d) Vocational interests inventories.
(e) Personality adjustment scales.
(f) Scales of social beliefs.
(g) Various types of dexterity tests.
(h) Aptitude tests.

Repetition in the use of these instruments will furnish data that indicate the nature of growth patterns in several areas.

6. Analysis of creative expressions. When young people are given opportunities to express themselves freely, they reveal, in writing, speaking, art, music, in the shop, laboratory, or in dramatic and other activities, significant facts relative to their adjustment.

7. Examination of pupil's acceptance by his classmates. Important data about individual youth may be gathered from the cumulative interpretation of the attitudes of pupils toward each other. We may discover the extent to which a pupil is accepted or rejected by members of his group and also the degree to which he finds satisfaction in associations with other youth.

8. Conferences with others who know the student. Teachers, doctors, the school nurse, the scoutmaster, social case workers, club sponsors, school counselors, and personnel workers as well as employers frequently are sources of pertinent facts that reveal causes of behavior. In using such sources of information it is usually more profitable to ask for stories about the student rather than for behavior judgments.

9. A check-list of out-of-school activities. A report of what the student does during his out-of-school time frequently reveals important data. Information regarding habits of free-time reading, radio listening, movie attendance, church attendance, social participation, club membership and attendance, and work experiences becomes important as an approach to understanding the student.

10. A problem check-list. When students are permitted to indicate the problems that concern them most, they frequently reveal critical data relative to their adjustments in school and at home.

These suggestions of procedures for studying individuals raise a question as to how teachers will find time to do all these things. The answer is found partially in the recommendation that only one or two fairly normal youth be studied at one time. It is possible over a period of time to observe and record the significant behavior of one or two students who face only normal problems in teaching situations where the study of deviate cases and several individuals would be prohibitive. A teacher may decide to study one or two pupils one semester or year and then choose a different type of student for study the following year. As a result of such practice it is possible to become acquainted with a wide variety of factors that influence growth and adjustment.

Becoming sensitive to critical symptoms of maladjustment. Identification of objective evidence related to overt behavior is facilitated by increased understanding of the types of behavior that are symptomatic of the existence of maladjustments. It is impossible to list all of the symptoms that might be characterized under specific circumstances as critical. The following general categories of behavior, however, have been found by students of adolescent growth and development to be important indications of needs faced by secondary school youth.

1. Extremely aggressive behavior.
2. Withdrawing behavior.
3. Moodiness.
4. Daydreaming.
5. Lack of self-confidence.
6. Lack of self-control.
7. Inability to maintain sustained interest in an activity.
8. Lack of respect for other pupils.
9. Unwillingness to co-operate.

Interpreting data about students. Study of individual youth demands, first of all, a conscientious devotion to the scientific method. As a student of youth and human adjustment, one accepts the responsibility of recording accurately and objectively the behavior patterns demonstrated over an extended period of time. Recognizing that behavior is caused, the teacher searches for significant trends in behavior patterns that suggest most probable causes. Certain principles have proved useful in interpreting facts about students.

1. Skill in interpreting data must be carefully developed.
2. The total mass of information collected should be taken into account in identifying significant behavior trends.

population in a particular school; (3) studying ranges of differences within a class group; (4) studying individual youth who are in "trouble"; and (5) studying one or two normal youth. Of these methods, the last has proved most useful in helping to develop an acquaintance with the adjustment of individual youth. Numerous resources are available to the person engaged in the intensive study of a young person. It is possible to identify situations that afford unusually good opportunities for studying students. An important aspect of becoming acquainted with adolescents is related to the development of an understanding and appreciation of the characteristic needs of secondary school students.

Related Experiences

1. If convenient, arrange for a showing of the following film: *Learning to Understand Children* (Part I—22 minutes; Part II—22 minutes; sound). Distributed by McGraw-Hill Test Films, 330 West 42nd Street, New York, N. Y. A case study of an emotionally and socially maladjusted girl of 15 is dramatized. Shown in detail are diagnostic techniques, such as observation of the child's behavior in school, study of previous records, personal interviews, home visitation, and the formulation of a hypothesis for remedial measures.
2. Try to remember incidents or evidences from your own high school or college experience that suggest to you that your teachers needed a deeper understanding of youth. Compare your experiences with those of your classmates.
3. Observe teaching in a nearby high school for the purpose of ascertaining to what extent its teachers seem to understand adolescent youth.
4. Evaluate the approaches presented in this chapter to studying youth in a secondary school. Which of these approaches are teachers of your acquaintance using in becoming acquainted with youth?
5. Plan and carry out an extensive study of an adolescent youth throughout an extended period. Gather as many objective facts as possible. Try to follow all the suggested procedures for gathering data. Ask your fellow students and your instructor to help you analyze the results of your own efforts to write accurate statements of the behavior you have observed.
6. Working with two or more classmates as a committee, make a list of fifty or more specific needs of youth whom you know and classify them according to the characteristic needs presented in this chapter.
7. What other characteristically common needs can you add to those discussed in this chapter?
8. List ten specific individual needs possessed exclusively by adolescents you know. Mention one need for each adolescent that is peculiar to him and not to any other individual whom you know.

Suggested Readings

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HELSETH, INGA OLLA, AND STILES, LINDLEY J., *Supervision as Guidance.* Williamsburg, Va.: Virginia Gazette Press (the Authors), 1946, 79 pp.

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3. Generalizations based upon overt behavior may lead to false conclusions regarding basic needs of individuals.

4. Caution should be exercised to avoid drawing conclusions from invalid data or upon the basis of too limited evidence.

5. Tentative decisions regarding behavior should be continually evaluated as new evidence becomes available.

6. The group approach to interpretation is likely to be more valid than individual analysis. Whenever possible we should obtain the help of other teachers, school officials, and school psychologists in interpreting data about pupils.

7. Interpretations of data related to undesirable behavior patterns should be made for the purpose of discovering causes of such behavior so that appropriate treatment may be initiated.

8. The study of youth is a professional responsibility; consequently, it should be accorded appropriate professional confidence.

Making use of situations that afford opportunities for studying youth. The teacher who is beginning intensive study of individual youth will become sensitive to situations that afford opportunities for observing overt behavior patterns. It will be recognized that in some schools behavior is so completely controlled by superimposed adult regulations demanding conforming adjustments that the actual behavior of many students will be contrary to natural impulses. Even in closely controlled situations, however, there are opportunities to study the ways in which individual pupils react when required to conform, provided the artificiality of the situation is recognized and taken into account in analyzing the causes of behavior. Often, the task of the teacher in removing causes of socially inappropriate behavior involves the changing of school conditions as well as helping the pupil to adapt to school regulations.

Situations that present fruitful opportunities for observations include the following:

1. The classroom. Here the teacher can observe patterns of student adjustment, evidences of self-direction, peer-to-peer relationships, willingness to share responsibility, ability to share in purposeful activities, and attitudes toward others and life in general. The more democratic the classroom situation the greater the opportunity to study natural reactions of youth. When classroom behavior is teacher-dominated, pupils tend to submit to patterns of conformity, thus inhibiting natural activities and reactions.

2. Extraclass activities. In many schools pupils live naturally only in activities that they, themselves, organize and carry on. In school clubs, assemblies, student government, speech and dramatic

activities, music activities, newspaper activities, athletic programs, intramural athletics, and in various student committee assignments they tend to reveal their most typically normal behavior. When one is able to work with students easily while guiding these extraclass activities he has an excellent opportunity to observe student behavior in more nearly natural situations.

3. Out-of-school activities. Youth frequently behave so differently when they engage in out-of-school activities that, whenever it is possible, observations of their participation in such activities should be made. It is possible, also, to discover pertinent facts about youth in out-of-school situations through questionnaires, work records, and other information typically included in school records. Conferences with individuals who have opportunities to observe the youth in community situations are another means of obtaining such information.

4. The home. Visits to the home of a pupil are perhaps the richest source of information relative to the forces that give impetus to his behavior. Without a knowledge of home background it is impossible to make accurate interpretations of behavior evidenced by a pupil in a school or community situation. Increasingly, secondary schools are providing for home visitation as a regular phase of developing effective understanding of students. Schools that are making provisions for teachers to work with fewer students for extended periods of time find it easier to facilitate home visitation. Teachers who are studying intensively individual students usually find that school records do not adequately reflect the atmosphere of the home. Home visitations under congenial circumstances become, then, the only source of accurate data relative to a major portion of a young person's activities of living.

5. The school lunchroom. During the noon hour, when youth mingle freely in a school lunchroom, an excellent opportunity is afforded to observe natural interaction between a particular pupil and his classmates. In this informal situation, it is not difficult to ascertain whether a student who always seems quiet and shy in the classroom exhibits similar characteristics when associating with friends during the lunch hour.

6. Work experiences. If accurate information can be obtained relative to behavior patterns that a student exhibits while working, it frequently reveals entirely new factors that contribute to understanding individual adjustment.

Acquiring needed knowledges and skills for studying secondary school youth. The teacher, as a student of human development, will seek to develop understandings, knowledges, and necessary

skills that give direction to the study of youth. The Commission on Teacher Education of the American Council on Education has suggested specific personal equipment that the teacher must acquire in order to study youth effectively.[6] With minor adaptations and expansions the suggestions follow:

1. A comprehensive and integrated knowledge of the scientific generalizations that explain human development and behavior.
2. A sound definition of the conditions, interpersonal and social relationships, experiences, and activities that usually promote wholesome development and behavior of youth in the various segments of our society.
3. A recognition of the kinds of information needed about an individual adolescent in order to form hypotheses about his developmental tasks, adjustment problems, and behavior in a given situation, and about how he can be helped.
4. Skill in obtaining the necessary information about individual youth and about groups of youth, and skill in so ordering these facts in relation to one another that they will point to the combination of generalizations or principles that suggest hypotheses about the youth's needs.
5. Skill in working out the meaningful relationships between facts about a youth or a group and the relevant scientific generalizations. These relationships between principles and specific information must be sufficiently extensive to yield valid diagnoses of the meaning of a situation for an adolescent of the developmental tasks and adjustment problems he faces, of the motivation that underlies his behavior in a given situation, and of the interpersonal relations operative in the class of which he is a part.
6. Skill and ingenuity in devising and carrying out practical plans for facilitating the development, learning, and adjustment of the adolescent youth whose needs, problems, and tasks have been diagnosed. Both deductions from known principles and ingenuity in creating new materials and situations are needed in making these plans.
7. A sincere respect for every young person; a clear sense of professional obligation to help every youth; a vigorous interest in securing competent professional diagnosis and treatment of any suspected condition; and a strong code of professional ethics that governs all dealings with children and their parents and regulates the safeguarding and use of all information.
8. The courage to modify institutional form and social and

[6] Commission on Teacher Education, *op. cit.*, p. 461.

community restrictions in the interest of helping individual young persons who find it impossible to adjust to arbitrarily conceived standards of behavior.

9. The ability and willingness to co-operate with other teachers in the study of secondary school youth.

10. The ability to create a setting for learning in the secondary school that permits youth to live naturally and with their fellow students in an atmosphere of harmony, helpfulness, and happiness.

Implications for teachers who would study youth. The student familiar with typical patterns of teaching in American secondary schools will recognize the fact that many teachers now in service do not possess the necessary attitudes, knowledges, and skills for the study of youth. Teachers have been trained in the philosophy and techniques of teaching nonfunctional subject matter. They have been concerned largely with organized bodies of knowledge rather than with the problems of secondary school youth.

Prospective teachers face the responsibility of determining whether they will be able to develop personal and professional competencies for the study of youth. In view of the relationship between understanding of adolescents and success in teaching, those who consider teaching as a profession should evaluate their willingness and ability to develop the necessary skills and attributes for this aspect of teaching.

A high level of competence in the techniques of studying youth very likely cannot be developed in programs of pre-service preparation. Accomplishment of this objective will demand continuous study and experimentation through on-the-job educational projects. Teachers interested in developing competence for studying youth will find opportunities for promoting such interest through (a) voluntary study groups within a school system, (b) in-service education programs provided by schools, (c) participation in summer workshops conducted by public school systems and by teacher-education institutions, (d) intensive study of one or two normal youth, and (e) association with other professional people in conferences, committees, and state and national organizations.

Characteristic Needs of Adolescent Youth

Groups of individuals strive for common goals, but they follow different courses of action in the process. In our society we endeavor to help all individuals achieve common likenesses in certain social competencies, such as the ability to respect one another,

Chapter 7

TEACHING TWENTY MILLION YOUNG AMERICANS:[1] NO TWO ALIKE

Account for the statement that no two American youth are alike. . . . What kinds of differences are significant to teachers in a democracy? . . . Into what two main groups may physical differences be classified? . . . Compare the range of differences within one sex group with those found to exist between the sexes during adolescence. . . . What is intelligence? . . . Of what factors is it believed to consist? . . . How do avenues of learning differ in relation to differences of ability in the learner? . . . What obligations do differences in the emotional life of youth impose upon teachers? . . . Of what significance to teachers is a knowledge of differences in moral and religious traits of youth? . . . What are some of the desirable social concomitants of individual differences among young people? . . . What differences possessed by youth have, or should have, no effect on their success in school?

A major responsibility of teaching in the secondary school is to help approximately 20 million youth, no two of whom are exactly alike, ranging in age from 12 to 19 years, to live harmoniously together. All youth have common needs determined by the requirements of their environment. They also possess needs peculiar to their own individual differences. Although these needs may be similar with respect to type, they differ in terms of the extent to which they exist, the degree to which they are met, and the ways in which they are satisfied.

Variations that depend upon differences that exist among adolescent youth influence their attempts to gain satisfactions from experiences in which they engage. Differences are due in part both to biological and social inheritance. In part, they are a result of

[1] This number represents an approximation based upon the 1940 United States Census figures indicating that there were at that time 19,553,997 youth between the ages of 12 and 19.

particular stages and rates of maturation in terms of physical growth, mental and emotional development, and improvement in social competency. They are conditioned by geographical location, types of community in which youth live, aesthetic opportunities, economic background, and the home environment.

Although all normal individuals move through a succession of maturity levels that are characterized by certain developments common to all, their patterns of maturation are individually peculiar with respect to time of onset, rate, intensity and cessation. Children learn to walk, for example, at different ages, in different ways, and with differing rates. Likewise, adolescent youth differ with respect to the time, way, and rate of becoming concerned with social relationships, economic influences, and citizenship responsibilities and obligations. In none of these does awareness develop simultaneously nor by the same pattern. No two individuals can ever approach a new experience in exactly the same way nor with an identical degree of receptiveness. Each is the product of a unique background of previous experiences.

Chapter 6 pointed out the importance of becoming acquainted with youth and emphasized the relationship between knowledge concerning students and success in teaching. In order to know youth it is necessary not only to realize that differences exist but also to know the types of differences that occur and the range of differences that may be present in any particular trait.

Qualitatively, youth possess the same kinds of traits. They all have intelligence, emotions, feelings, aptitudes, and similar physical characteristics. Quantitatively, individuals vary in terms of the amount of each of these factors. Such variations range from low to high degree, from weak to strong, or from small to great. Because these differences affect the ease with which youth make adjustments they bear directly on learning and, consequently, on teaching.

Potentially, the secondary school population of the United States consists of approximately twenty million boys and girls and young men and women. Up to the year 1949, only 73 per cent of this total had ever been enrolled simultaneously in secondary schools, and that for only one year, 1940. In 1947 more than two-thirds of the 18- and 19-year-olds were not in school. Figure 2 shows the number in school in 1940 according to age and school groupings.

Although less than 14 million were in school in 1940, the potential secondary school enrollment in the United States was almost 20 million youth. The principal reason why so great a

skills of co-operation, and the willingness to use intelligence rather than force in the solution of group problems. Yet we seek to make provisions, also, for the development and perpetuation of individual differences in personal interest, creativeness, vocational aptitude, religious beliefs, and experiential backgrounds.

Needs common to all youth. Although adolescents are different, they have similar needs determined by the setting in which they find themselves. Rooted in the natural activities of life in which all youth engage or expect to engage in the future, these needs form the pattern of common learnings in the secondary school.

In recent years, education has given attention to the identification of the needs common to all youth in a democratic society. In general, all are agreed that the secondary school has the responsibility of helping all normal youth to satisfy the following needs.[7]

1. Security. In order to live effectively and to maintain a well-balanced personal adjustment, all youth need a sense of security. The establishment of satisfactory rapport in human relationships leads to feelings of security. One gains security through the knowledge that one is needed and wanted. The recognition that he "belongs" and the realization that his contributions to group life are significant and worthwhile helps one to feel secure.

Security is a by-product of a group climate that cherishes "shared respect" as a guiding tenet of living. It comes from believing in oneself and from knowing that as a human being one is important.

Security is an outcome of the achievement of success. Even so, security may be maintained in the face of repeated failures when the individual accepts failure as a necessary aspect of striving to achieve. This is the situation with the scientist who fails many times in the pursuit of one final success that completes his experiment.

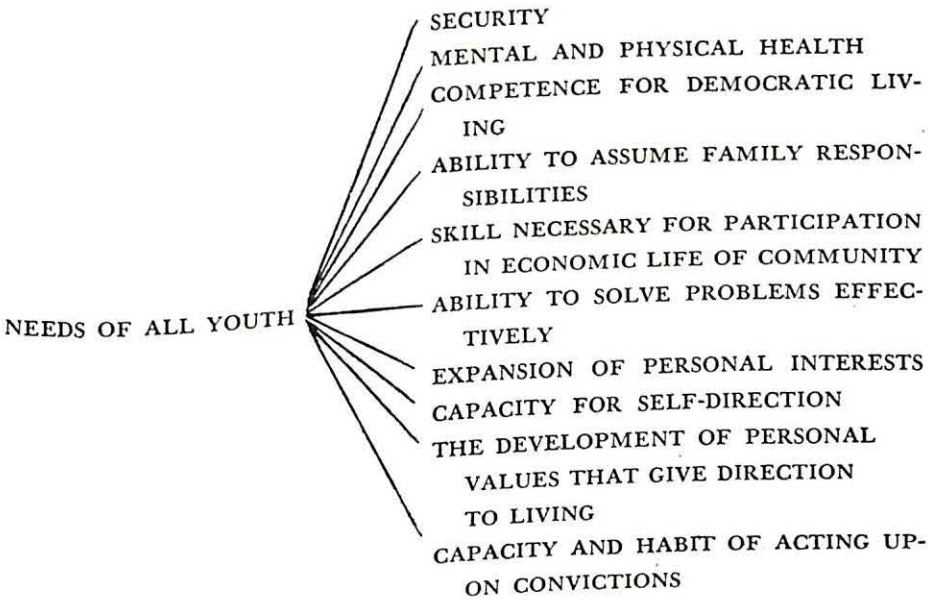
2. Satisfactory mental and physical health. Good health depends both on understanding of conditions basic to healthful living and on the establishment of habits conducive to the maintainence of satisfactory mental and physical adjustment. Knowledge of the prevention of disease, adherence to habits of safety, utilization of appropriate medical services are all necessary to fulfillment of requirements for good health.

[7] This statement of needs is based largely upon the following sources:
Educational Policies Commission, *Education for All American Youth*. Washington, D. C.: Educational Policies Commission, 1944, 410 pp.
National Association of Secondary School Principals, *Planning for American Youth*. Washington, D. C.: N.E.A., 1944, 63 pp.
The Faculty of The University School, *The Philosophy and Purposes of The University School*. Columbus, Ohio: The Ohio State University, 1948, 12 pp.

Fundamental to individual well-being is a concern for the mental and physical health of others. Individuals maintain satisfactory health only to the extent that the entire group is able to achieve high standards of healthful living.

3. Competence for democratic living. Competence for democratic living includes such factors as the ability to live co-operatively and a willingness to share power and respect. The socially competent citizen is willing to contribute to the welfare of others and to assume civic responsibilities. He understands the tenets of democratic faith. He appreciates the heritage of American culture and recognizes the contrasts between democracy and other ways of national life.

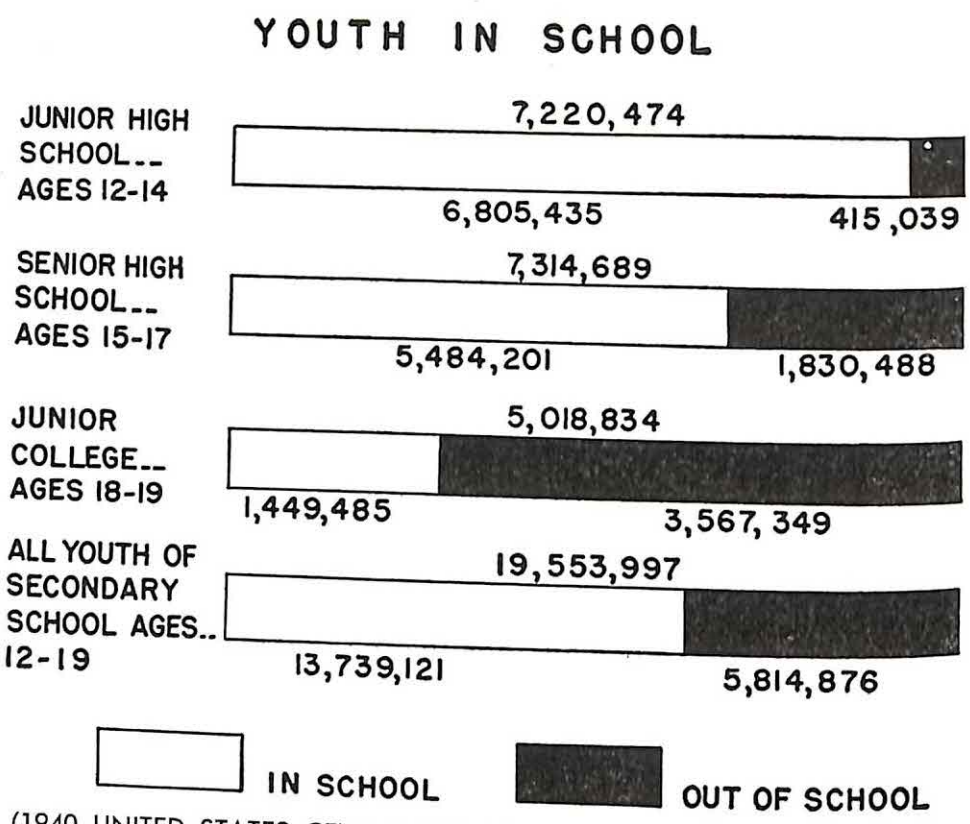
CHARACTERISTIC NEEDS OF YOUTH OF SECONDARY SCHOOL AGE



In meeting the needs of social competence, all youth will necessarily develop knowledges, attitudes, understandings; but over and beyond this accomplishment, they need to perfect skills related to group living.

4. Family responsibilities. Youth need to develop appreciation for the importance of family responsibilities. Early in their adolescent years they need to develop wholesome, congenial, and natural associations with members of the opposite sex. They need to develop a wholesome outlook toward friendship, courtship, and

FIGURE 2



(1940 UNITED STATES CENSUS REPORT)

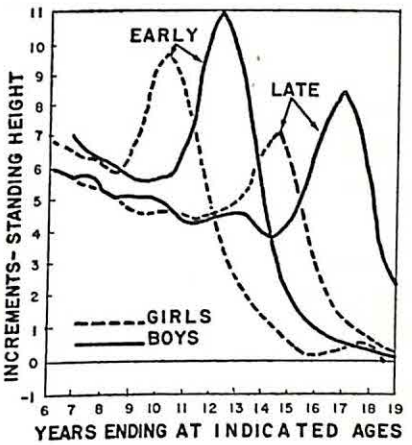
disparity exists at any time between secondary school population and enrollment in secondary schools is that differences among youth—differences that make it difficult for a sizeable number of the nation's youth to adjust to the quality of teaching or type of education afforded by secondary schools—are ever present.

Because all youth have similar needs, they are alike in terms of *what* secondary education can do for them, but because they are all different in extent of similar needs or in their ability to adjust to them, they require individualized and personalized treatment. *How* secondary education meets their needs is a major concern of teaching method. When the 20 million potential students actually are enrolled in secondary schools, a quality of teaching will be required that recognizes the uniqueness of each individual. Mass instruction has often been the cause of lack of attendance in secondary schools and of the failure as citizens of many of those who have "completed" their secondary education and have received Associate in Arts degrees from junior or community colleges.

The kinds of differences considered in this chapter include physical differences; social and economic differences; differences in capacity, abilities, and aptitudes; differences in interests, ambitions and goals; moral and spiritual differences; emotional differences and other differences that are a result of personal experience, environmental influences, or inheritance.

FIGURE 3

GROWTH IN HEIGHT OF EARLY AND LATE MATURING BOYS AND GIRLS IN TERMS OF AVERAGE ANNUAL INCREMENTS



(After Shuttleworth as reported by Bayley and Tuddenham.)

Physical Differences

Major physical differences evident during adolescence are related to bodily growth and to sexual maturity. It is so commonly recognized that youth of the same chronological age differ in height, weight, posture, and stature that the significance of such variations is frequently lost sight of in plans and programs of education for secondary school youth. It is difficult to identify differences in strength, endurance, metabolism, reaction time, rate of fatigue, and resistance to disease. Each of these differences, however, must be considered in dealing with young people during adolescence.

Bodily growth. During early adolescence both boys and girls normally experience a period of rapid change in height and weight, increase in blood pressure, slowing of metabolic rate, increase in lung capacity, and growth in facial proportions and size of hands and feet.[2] These characteristics have their onset at different times, however, and vary in their rate of development. Figure 3 depicts the differences in time of onset and rate of maturation for early and late maturing boys and girls in terms of average annual increments in height as an illustration of this point.

Bones mature during adolescence and the stomach increases in size and demands more food. Boys gain in shoulder width and girls in width of hips. During middle adolescence, girls attain

[2] National Society for the Study of Education, *Adolescence,* Forty-Third Yearbook. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1944, 358 pp.

adult height at 16 and boys reach full growth in this characteristic around 18, a difference that sometimes occasions need for special care in planning social affairs for senior high school youth. Boys continue to gain in weight speedily, whereas girls gain very little. Although a drop in blood pressure occurs in girls, a rise occurs in boys. Both sexes continue to slacken in pulse rate, experience an increase in perspiration, and frequently have digestive disturbances evidenced by pimples and peculiar tastes in food. Death-rate increases for youth of this age due to strains of adjustment. Little noticeable changes are evident for youth during late adolescence with the exception that boys continue to increase in weight.

Sexual maturity. By the age of twelve, only five per cent of boys are sexually mature, whereas 38 per cent of girls have reached this stage. During the years from 13 to 15, sexual maturity is completed for about 75 per cent of the boys and about 95 per cent of the girls. Endocrine glands increase gradually in weight and function for both sexes during these years, except the thymus, which develops rapidly. Increased pituitary action stimulates growth of sex organs, and appearance of secondary sex characteristics. Typically, girls precede boys in the development of such characteristics, sometimes by as much as eighteen months. But, on the other hand, some girls mature more slowly than do some boys; likewise, some boys are as much as five years accelerated in physical growth as compared with other boys.

In meeting individual needs of youth, recognition must be taken of the physical growth status of individual boys and girls in order to anticipate problems of adjustment. Unless the bodily changes that are taking place in young people and the differences in time and extent of occurrence are understood, it is unlikely that learning situations adapted to individual needs can be created.

Growth changes affect learning in numerous ways. Youth who are experiencing rapid growth in physical structure may find their attention diverted from organized learning activities by unusual curiosity, embarrassment, or shame about themselves. They may, also, lack energy for extended concentration. In some instances they may experience actual physical discomfort and pain to the extent that they are not well enough to take part in group activities. For some, particular learning activities may not be adapted to the maturation stage through which they are passing. Such considerations emphasize the desirability of understanding physical growth characteristics of adolescent youth.

Differences in Capacities, Abilities, and Aptitudes

Adolescent youth differ with respect to the amount and kinds of intelligence they possess. Traditional teaching in secondary schools has placed emphasis upon differences in verbal intelligence. Youth have been thought of as being either bright or dull, rapid or slow learners, usually in terms of their ability to learn abstract material. Frequently we have seen our function in teaching as one of prodding the slow students to try to keep them moving at the pace set by the class, sometimes holding back the rapid learners so that the difference would not be too great.

Instruments for measuring intelligence. As yet, no satisfactory instrument has been developed to measure accurately inherent capacity to learn, nor have psychologists been successful in their attempts to analyze intellectual endowment according to various mental functions. Since the turn of the century, under the leadership of such men as Thorndike, Terman, Thurstone, Stoddard, and others, numerous attempts have been made to discover the nature of intelligence and to devise instruments for detecting and measuring the extent of intellectual capacity possessed by children at different ages and under various environmental influences.[3] Most of such efforts have been directed toward the development of standardized tests growing out of the mental tests devised by Binet and Simon. One reason for the emphasis on attempting to measure intelligence with paper and pencil tests has been the fact that achievement in school until recently has been judged largely in terms of verbal ability.

Attempts in recent years to develop aptitude tests that would measure various types of ability (as in music, art, mechanical ability, clerical aptitude, and the like) have contributed to the belief now supported by some psychologists that general intelligence is not a unitary mental quality. Intelligence is now believed to consist of many factors, such as number sense, verbal facility, memory ability, comprehension of spatial relationships, reasoning or judgment forming ability, creativeness, and social sensitivity. Some believe, also, that in addition to such factors as these there also seem to exist aptitudes and capacities for perception, discrimination, and recognition of values in special fields such as music, art, mechanics and business procedures.

Although we may observe that there seems to be little relation-

[3] A helpful discussion of the meaning of intelligence will be found in George D. Stoddard, *The Meaning of Intelligence.* New York: The Macmillan Co., 1943, 509 pp.

ship between what we may call "social intelligence" and "verbal intelligence," evidence does not yet exist to prove that factors in intelligence are discrete.

How youth differ in intelligence. Adolescent youth, like those of other ages, differ not only in amount of "general intelligence" possessed as measured by standardized tests but also in the extent to which they possess the various factors included in what is thought of as general intelligence. They vary in the rate of development of the various factors, although it is believed that mental growth is completed, or nearly so, by the time youth reach the stage of late adolescence. This fact is one to which attention has been called by many psychologists and educators. Information presented in the Forty-Third Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, *Adolescence,* lends support to the hypothesis that practically half, meaning the second half, of total mental growth occurs during early and middle adolescence. It is believed, however, that the maturing of many abilities occurs during late adolescence, and the cessation of mental growth takes place during this period.

According to age level, principal differences between boys and girls are: [4]

(1) Boys and girls in growth differ in manual precision and bimanual co-ordination during early adolescence while both exhibit a steady gain in spatial and temporal eye-hand co-ordination.

(2) A gain in IQ scores is generally greater in early, not late, adolescence. In middle adolescence, youth often become interested in school work as they see its value in relation to future careers. Difference in special abilities favoring boys seems to exist on performance tests. A 10 per cent increase in mental disorders occurs during this period.

In recent studies of growth in intelligence at the college level it has been found that continued attendance in school produces decided gains in mental growth during late adolescence. These results agree with the earlier findings of Thorndike that mental growth extends beyond the period of adolescence.

Provision for variations in intelligence. In teaching it is necessary to recognize that students differ in kind and amount of intelligence. It is also important that all kinds and amounts of intelligence be equally respected because of the contribution that each can make to the welfare of the total group. There are no "bright" and "dull" pupils when all types of ability are considered. Although students differ, all possess abilities that are vital to the well-

[4] National Society for the Study of Education, *op. cit.,* pp. 8–184.

fare of society. Learning experiences can be adapted to the type of intelligence possessed by each student.

Providing a variety of avenues to learning makes it possible for all students to grow regardless of the type of abilities they possess. Some of the ways which are adapted to different kinds and levels of intelligence are illustrated as follows:

AVENUES TO LEARNING

Concrete Experiences (Actual)					Abstract Experiences (Vicarious)
Learning by doing					
	Learning by watching others do				
		Learning by hearing descriptions of doing			
			Learning by looking at pictures and diagrams		
				Learning by listening to radio or lectures	
					Learning by reading and reflection.

All learning is aided by firsthand experiences. As individuals develop verbal ability they are able to substitute vicarious or abstract experiences for actual "learning by doing."

Emotional Differences

Individuals differ with respect to depth and intensity of feelings, the objects that stimulate emotional responses, the ways in which emotional reactions are expressed and controlled.

Nature of emotional experiences. An emotion may be defined as any departure from the usual calm state of the individual as expressed in strong feelings, impulses to overt action, internal bodily changes in circulation, and respiration and glandular re-

action. The physical changes that occur during emotional experience are produced by means of the autonomic nervous system, the nerves that extend to the glands and to the involuntary muscles. Inasmuch as this system of nerves is not under voluntary control, the individual cannot prevent an emotion from developing if the appropriate stimulus appears. All he can do is to learn to modify the resulting overt response.

Two general types of drives influence behavior. There are those that are physiological and have as their goal physical satisfaction (the drive to secure food when hungry or to obtain protection when cold) and those related to sexual stimulation. Others that may be called drives for "ego-satisfaction" include such urges as the desire to dominate, to receive attention, social recognition, happiness, and security. As these drives develop they produce conditions that cause the individual to react in ways that relieve tensions and produce a satisfactory adjustment. If a tension cannot be released, it continues and increases until the individual finds himself "stirred up." A secondary school girl who desires social recognition but who is unable to attain such a goal may develop an emotional blocking that leads to frustration. Reaction to this frustration may become a substitute for social recognition. She may devote considerable time to such attractions as caring for animal pets, day-dreaming of the time when she can secure recognition, or to devoting herself to her school tasks so assiduously that she receives high marks. A more dangerous reaction under such circumstances is withdrawal from social experience altogether or the development of undesirable responses that alleviate but do not eliminate the frustration.

Psychologists differ in accepting any fixed number of emotions. Some admit the presence of only one single "stirred-up" feeling that varies in response to different stimuli, whereas others recognize three, four, or as many as a dozen different emotions. The three that have been investigated most thoroughly are fear, anger, and love. These are considered by many psychologists to be primary emotions possessed by all human beings. Secondary states, such as jealousy, dread, worry, disgust, regret, sorrow, excitement, pleasure, embarrassment (to include only a few of those possible to identify), are usually considered to be less intense than the three primary emotions. These, however, may actually be more prolonged and consequently more influential in terms of their effect upon human behavior than the primary emotions.

Fears. Considerable information concerning abnormal fears has been made available, and many studies have been conducted con-

cerning the normal fears of various age groups. During early childhood causes of fear are mainly external to the child; that is, he is afraid of things or of conditions, real or imaginary, that he finds about him. After school age is reached many of a child's fears relate to school experiences, especially to such difficult situations as examinations, games of competitive nature, contests of strength and speed, teasing by other children, and punishment for "breaking the rules." Although these fears may still persist when a child reaches adolescence, a new set of fears begins to develop—those that are aroused because of changing conditions within himself. Often lack of understanding of normal bodily growth during adolescence results in intense fear leading to abnormal behavior, and, in extreme cases, to personality disorder.

The type of fear that develops from concern over personal growth and adjustment contributes to a wide variety of individual differences that abound during adolescence with respect to emotional adjustment. Similar conditions may cause different fears, both in kind and intensity, in individuals. Conversely, specific types of emotional reactions related to fear may be caused by widely varying factors.

Teaching procedures that are accepted easily by certain pupils may actually be the cause of fear in others. Likewise, efforts that relieve fears that confront individuals may be ineffective when employed with different people and in dissimilar situations.

Anger. During adolescence anger tends to be based more and more upon social situations. Girls, more than boys, become angry because they dislike specific behavior of others or as a result of resistance to developing social activities. Boys, particularly, become angry when material objects fail to function properly. Impersonal matters cause anger in both boys and girls, especially during later adolescence. On the other hand, the adult becomes angry if his activities are too much interfered with or when he is concerned about the miscarriage of justice or social conditions that he feels are wrong or unjust. Because of differences in reaction to anger during various stages of growth, it is sometimes difficult to deal with young people under conditions that tend to anger some individuals and not affect others.

Release from anger may be direct, indirect, or suppressed. Temper tantrums of children are illustrations of unrepressed feelings of anger. Typically, little children learn to control rage impulses or to express them in ways that are not objectionable to others. It is not unusual, however, for some youth to reach adolescence without having developed this ability. Suppression is an

undesirable way of reacting to the feelings of anger, since the stored-up tension frequently is productive of further trouble that will break out in the most unexpected ways at times when no stimulus seems to be present.

During early and middle adolescence the typical response to anger tends to be verbal rather than physical, although sometimes the individual resorts to restlessness, violent exercise, and to crying. In some adults blocked impulses result in uncontrolled behavior. Men may kick the furniture and women cry. Secondary school youth may exhibit all degrees of emotional control or inhibition and all kinds of compensating mechanisms commonly employed in frustrating situations.

Love. Although youth differ from children in source of fears and expression or control of rage, the greatest emotional differences between the periods of childhood and adolescence are found in the objects and expressions of love. During childhood two stages in the normal cycle of love have been experienced—love for parents and love for members of one's own age and sex group. These stages have been accompanied usually by feelings of satisfaction, happiness, and well-being. Expressions of love during childhood are spontaneous and free from embarrassment or self-consciousness. During childhood, however, differences do exist in the amount of satisfactions that children have received from the expression of the emotion of love. Although some are happily secure in the mutual love and affection of their families, other children hunger for such experience.

As youth reach adolescence they enter into the third stage of the love cycle, that of love for the opposite sex. At this time boys and girls develop normal interests in each other although in some instances abnormal homosexual love persists. Girls, especially, have great affection, or "crushes" for older women, while boys may continue to find satisfactions through expressions of affection for members of their own sex. By the period of late adolescence heterosexual adjustment is usually well established.

Adolescents seek companionship and attempt to express affection in many ways. Falling in and out of love easily and normally is one way adolescents have of finding out the type of individual they like best and with whom they are most congenial. Attempts to attain love adjustment are often conditioned by ridicule, sarcasm, and reproachfulness from family or from friends. Shannon [5] points out,

[5] John Raymond Shannon, *Secondary Education in a Democracy*. Minneapolis, Minnesota: Burgess Publishing Company, 1946, p. 140.

Perhaps the first corollary of the underlying cause of adolescent mental morbidities is hesitancy and rebuff associated with advances made by boys and girls toward one another. It is natural for a boy to make courtly gestures toward a girl and for her to respond favorably or even to encourage him and egg him on. But adolescents have been conditioned against this natural arrangement by thoughtless or ignorant or perverted parents and teachers. Therefore, the adolescents feel undue hesitancy and fear of rebuff. Then when the rebuff comes (often as a result of unwise conditioning), humiliation of slight adds to the sufferer's anguish.

Youth are often not permitted natural expression of adolescent love impulses. On every hand there are prevalent mental morbidities of adolescents that often come to be accepted by the uninformed as natural manifestations of adolescent growth. Studies by psychologists and anthropologists give evidence that they do not occur among primitive peoples; consequently, they must be recognized as one of the unhealthy results of the prudishness of civilized society.[6] It is socially necessary for all youth to make normal adjustments to the opposite sex in order that they may eventually establish satisfying love relationships that result in marriage.

Understanding normal activity in relation to the emotion of love is fundamental to the recognition of abnormal behavior. A wide range of differences in emotional adjustment may be normal for various stages of maturation. Such differences exist because of varying chronological ages and of the rates of emotional development within any particular chronological age. Variations in expression following emotional experiences may be due to social treatment as well as to individual growth. Manifestations of unwholesome responses to emotional occurrences may be exhibited by individual youth. Elimination of fears, the sublimation of anger or control of responses to rage, and the development of wholesome expression of heterosexual love are necessary steps in promoting normal emotional responses.

Secondary emotions. Various phases of the primary emotions or combinations of these phases result in what have been called secondary emotions. Differences in degrees of such feelings as worry over family, personal, financial, social, and school conditions; anxiety or dread occasioned by illness, loss of job, failure of any kind; elation over successful achievement, pleasure or pride in accomplishment—all affect learning in differing ways and amounts.

[6] Margaret Mead, *Coming of Age in Somoa.* New York: William Morrow and Co., 1928, 297 pp.

Moral and Spiritual Differences

When students reach the secondary school they have already established moral and spiritual values derived largely from the ideals held by their parents and other adults of the community. Prior to adolescence individuals find security in accepting uncritically prescribed moral codes and spiritual beliefs. In many instances such acceptance is the result of a system of reward and punishment that tends to compel youth to avoid deviation from group mores. Parental approval, the major factor in such a system, is still a strong force in shaping the behavior patterns of youth during early adolescence. As young people mature, however, they tend to establish their own ideals of conduct. Development of a critical attitude toward the moral and spiritual value systems of parents is one of the first symptoms of moral and spiritual growth. During adolescence, youth, in an effort to understand, naturally begin questioning *what is*. They suddenly find themselves in a world which they are unable to comprehend. Without understanding *why* young people become attracted to the opposite sex, they realize that their own bodies are behaving in strange new ways; they become aware of the importance of the attitudes of others; they begin to discover that childhood myths, impressions, and teachings no longer adequately explain the complications of living. At this stage of development, many begin to doubt previously accepted precepts and explanations offered by adults.

Individuals possess varied differences with respect to moral codes and spiritual values. Because of the differing rates and patterns of maturation and varied home environments, both boys and girls face different kinds of problems. One member of a group may still accept the pattern of moral behavior of his parents, while some of his classmates have reached a stage where they desire to experiment with differing concepts of standards of behavior.

Social and Economic Differences

Young people experience diverse social and economic environments. As a result, some are more advanced than others in the ability to adjust to group relationships that characterize their age groups. As children reach adolescence they seek security in conforming to the code of behavior sanctioned by their peers; both boys and girls wish to be accepted as functioning members of groups. Failure to achieve this goal may lead to intense unhappi-

ness. However, some youth who have not acquired skill in "getting along" with others fail to win acceptance.

Differences in social adjustment occur as a result of variations of social and economic background. Economic resources may limit the student's ability to dress in accordance with the fashion of his age group, and this may make it impossible for him to keep abreast of other youth in recreational and other social activities. Youth who are handicapped economically may tend to become humiliated and may frequently withdraw from social participation and even from school.

Differences among adolescent youth may range from one extreme to another as indicated below:

From:	To:
1. The desire to be like others in order to be accepted by the group.	1. The urge to be unique and thus achieve individuality.
2. Positive aggressiveness.	2. Negative and withdrawing traits.
3. Defiant independence of parental control.	3. Respect and honor of parents and their authority.
4. Lacking techniques of getting along with the opposite sex.	4. Wholesome adjustment and ease in boy and girl relationships.
5. Loyalty to group leaders.	5. Intense opposition to attempts to organize or to condition group relationships.
6. Careful attention to appearance.	6. Slovenly habits of clothing and personal grooming.
7. Worry and embarrassment about the socio-economic status of their families.	7. Pride and even arrogance concerning their family status; or, on the other hand, unconcern and seeming unawareness of existing differences between their own and other families.
8. Feelings of inferiority, insecurity, and being outside the group.	8. Feelings of superiority, of acceptance, and of well-established "belonging" in the community.

Such differences are caused by differences in level of maturity, opportunity to learn "social ways," economic status, community attitudes and practices, ways in which individuals have been accepted or rebuffed, standards in the home or school, previous teaching, earlier habits, and a score of other factors.

Interest, Ambitions, and Goals

Historically, secondary school teaching has been directed toward a small, selected group of youth who possessed not only similar abilities but also similar interests and goals. Under such circumstances youth with other abilities and interests were not encouraged to attend secondary school. The carry-over from this tradition is one of the major factors contributing to the failure of over six million adolescent youth to continue in school. Youth who attended early secondary schools were primarily interested in preparation for the professions, the ministry, law, and medicine.

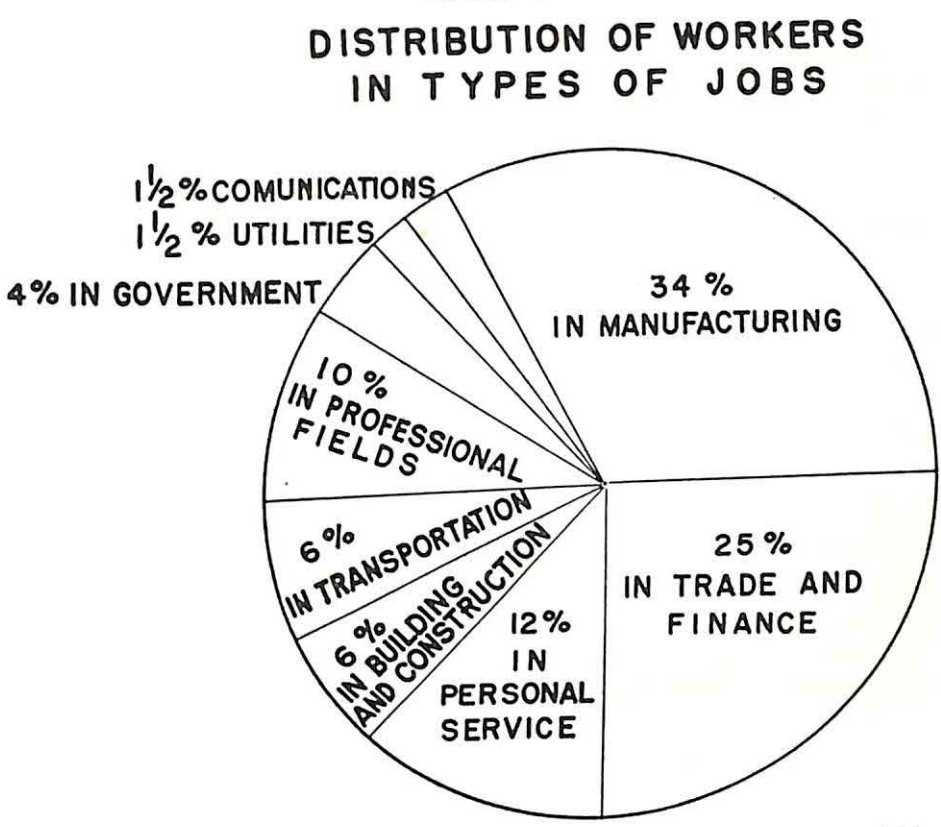
Today, young people with a multiplicity of interests seek fulfillment of personal ambitions and a wide variety of goals through experiences provided in secondary schools. About twenty per cent of all youth still look forward to entering professional life, although of this number many are girls who will eventually become homemakers. Others will change their goals before completing the final years of secondary school in the junior college. Actually not more than ten per cent are likely to enter a profession. Another twenty per cent of secondary school youth plan to enter skilled vocations. These, too, seek fulfillment of their vocational goals through training in the secondary schools. The remaining youth desire to graduate from high school and many wish to continue in junior college as preparation for a variety of occupations such as may be found in skilled labor, business, farming, selling, homemaking, trades, and any number of the 25,000 or more occupations in which American citizens engage. The expected distribution of occupations after high school graduation is illustrated by Figure 4.

Adolescent youth are interested in learning how to live more richly and more fully. All are interested in learning *to live* as well as *how to earn a living*. Such interests are varied because not all individuals find satisfaction and enjoyment from the same experiences.

Differences that may be expected in a group of secondary school youth are illustrated in the following pages. These boys and girls, although they may be similar in age and school level, of the same race, and living in the same community and hence influenced by much the same community practices, are in reality six unique individuals.

Individual differences have always existed, but the early secondary schools were not concerned with them. The dull and

FIGURE 4



(AVERAGE DISTRIBUTION FOUND IN A TYPICAL AMERICAN COMMUNITY. IMPLEMENTATION COMMISSION OF THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS, *PLANNING FOR AMERICAN YOUTH*. WASHINGTON, D. C.: NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS, 1944, P. 48.)

uninterested were merely failed and retarded or eliminated altogether. Since the discovery of the use of standardized tests and statistical methods, more attention has been given to individual differences. Frequently, however, our increased information about existing differences has been employed to segregate students on the basis of their personal qualities. As a result, unsuccessful youth have continued to be embarrassed, humiliated, and driven out of secondary schools where they were considered to be abnormal and unworthy of help merely because their interest and goals differed from their college-bound classmates.

Wide differences exist also among college-going youth. They differ with respect to emotions, maturity, physical capacities, social and economic backgrounds, and moral and religious beliefs. Tra-

are the outcomes that we strive to achieve. All learning is directed toward predicated ends. Only by knowing the source of goals, how they are determined, and ways in which they may be changed, will we be able to understand the concept of learning appropriate to our needs. Implied is the debatable assumption that the nature of learning may vary in different environments. If we accept the premise that truth is absolute, one and the same in all places and at all times, then it might follow logically that the process of arriving at truth—either in thought or action—would be an invariable one. On the other hand, we may recognize that although some values seem to be constant in all situations, others obviously are modifiable in terms of the objectives of individuals and groups and in the light of differences in perception. We will then be faced with the possibility that since variables exist in outcomes to be achieved, it could also follow that the process of learning might likewise vary.

This premise may be stated briefly: Ends and the means of their achievement are interrelated, and they modify one another. Such an assumption may be illustrated by the following contrasting goals and the means of their achievement.

Authoritarian Society	**Democratic Society**
Predicated goals	
Conformity to orders issued by those in power; diligent effort without questioning values; dependence upon others for direction.	Ability to help formulate one's own and group plans and procedures; diligent effort in terms of meaningful purposes and objectives; skill in self-directed co-operative action; creativeness, initiative, rational inquiry.
Conception of learning procedures necessary.	
Characterized by: (a) Forcing learner to perform routine tasks. (b) Drill without meaning for discipline's sake and for development of automatic responses.	Characterized by: (a) Helping individuals discover meaningful purposes. (b) Providing freedom in learning for deviation, experimentation, and creativity. (c) Recognition of value of self-directed learning.

The role of outcomes sought in determining the nature of learning is related to the assumption that we not only learn but, in addition, we *learn particular learning processes.* The individual who becomes accustomed during early childhood to the performance of routine tasks set by others undoubtedly feels more security and experiences greater satisfaction from continuing this type of rote learning. He will react more favorably, initially at any rate, to the kind of learning exercises to which he is accustomed.

Experienced college teachers readily recognize the satisfaction that many students experience from learning situations in which they listen to lectures, take notes, read specific assignments, memorize information, and reproduce on examinations that which is "learned." Frequently such students, when required to make practical application of certain learning experiences, become frustrated, insecure, and unable to give evidence of sound training. The outcomes that have always been assumed by them and their teachers as important—the memorization, recitation, and writing of factual knowledge—influence the type of learning that takes place.

On the other hand, students may grow up in situations that require them to learn by doing, rather than by memorization; to share actively in planning learning experiences; to think objectively about real problems; to exercise initiative and creativeness in daily living; to provide self-direction for growth experiences; to co-operate with others in group living and learning. For these students, learning will be conceived as a different action process—intellectually, emotionally, and physically. For them rote learning will be an unsatisfying experience since they will have *learned* a pattern of behaving in which they find security in self-directed activity, in creative action, and in searching for the solutions of personally recognized problems.

Importance and types of outcomes. The products or outcomes of learning are of significance both to the learner and to the society of which he is a member. It is in the outcomes of the learning process that the worth of the theory must be evaluated. This fact has particular significance for those organized learning experiences provided in schools for the purpose of helping growing youth to develop patterns of behavior and habits of thinking compatible with the life of the society. Inescapably, we must relate our theory of learning to the outcomes to be obtained.

1. Relation of outcomes to types of learning. Formerly, psychologists believed that outcomes were wholly dependent upon types of learning. To ensure a particular end-product, they be-

ADOLESCENT YOUTH

ALICE	GRETCHEN	OSCAR	TEACHER MUST
Average in size, attractive. Normal physical capacities.	Wears glasses. Underweight. Tires easily. Frequently ill. Avoids physical activity.	Fat, phlegmatic. Average in height. Prefers rest to recreation. Slightly hard of hearing.	Provide varied avenues for learning adapted to differences in (1) visual and auditory acuity; (2) length of sustained effort; (3) levels of maturation.
Below normal in verbal intelligence. High social intelligence. High degree of manual dexterity. Business sense.	Average verbal ability. High number ability. Capacity for making judgments. Strong aesthetic appreciation. Low social intelligence.	Fairly high social ability. Low number ability, good memory ability, low verbal ability. Above average in judgment. Persuasive aptitude.	Guide the development of class projects which utilize all levels and types of ability. Encourage development of varied aptitudes. Make provision for expression of artistic and scientific capacities.
Afraid of examinations and low grades. Cries easily. Falls in and out of love often. Apathetic toward anger stimuli. Daydreams.	No sex interest. Feels herself unattractive. Considers boys a nuisance. Fears she will not succeed in college. Neurotic tendency. Withdraws from companionship.	Sex interest poorly developed. Likes all girls. Fears his hearing will grow worse. Compensates for lack of athletic ability by leading other forms of groups. Attends meetings in community.	Have concern about individual emotional adjustment. Endeavor to help well-adjusted youth to continue so. Give especial help to those emotionally maladjusted.
Tends to accept moral obligations lightly. Seldom attends church. Not vicious, just neutral in relation to moral issues.	Teaches a primary class in Methodist Sunday school. Has wholesome attitude toward morality and religion.	A leader in religious activities for youth in his community. Morally upright. Takes responsibility in helping others to behave morally.	Help each youth to understand his moral obligation and to accept appropriate "moral codes" that will lead to personal integration. Feel and teach respect for religions of others.
An orphan living with her unmarried aunt who is the county nurse. One brother, no sisters. Has a small allowance.	Daughter of a college professor with average salary. One of four children. No regular allowance. Must ask for spending money.	Oldest of three sons of a successful farmer. Owns a car. Has an interest in the farm and an income.	Help students to choose group activities within the economic means of all. Encourage sharing of school experiences based upon co-operative planning and mutual respect.
A good dancer. Plays for orchestra. Plans to marry soon and quit school. Likes home economics. Likes children.	Likes to paint. Wants to teach in high school; hence, plans to get a college degree. Likes to listen to symphony concerts. Does not plan to marry. Will help educate her three brothers.	Likes to go to shows, ballgames, parties, young people's religious meetings. Plans to be a salesman. Does not expect to go beyond junior college.	Emphasize worth of individual goals, and evaluate student growth in terms of their goals. Encourage respect for each as contributor to a democratic society.

DIFFERENCES IN

Characteristics	Sue	Charley	Tony
Physical development	Large forehead. No defects. Reached pubescence at 10 years, 7 months. Physically and sexually mature.	Tall, slender, underweight. Nearsighted. Has pimples and an overactive thyroid. Energetic. Underdeveloped sexually.	Physically fit. Short, strong, muscular, quick, energetic, well-co-ordinated.
Capacities, abilities, and aptitudes.	High verbal intelligence. Superior reading ability. Excels in memorizing. Good in reasoning. No special aptitude.	Exceptionally insecure. High verbal ability. Strong capacity for research. Scientific aptitude.	Normal verbal ability. High social intelligence. Good reasoning power. Musical aptitude.
Emotional development	Free from fears and social inhibitions. Aggressive in heterosexual relationships. Well-balanced. Does not become angry easily.	Has an emotional attachment to his mother. Afraid of girls. Has no close friends among boys. Shy, timid, bashful.	Becomes angry because of poverty. Afraid his mother's poor health may become critical. Enjoys company of girls, but shows no favoritism.
Moral and religious practices.	Of doubtful moral integrity. Never attends church. Professes no religious beliefs. Makes fun of "moral codes." Flippant in relation to social conventions.	Does not consider church affiliation necessary but attends the Baptist church where his mother worships. Has a sound moral adjustment.	Well adjusted morally. Regular attendant of Catholic church. Finds religious beliefs satisfying. Is concerned about religious and moral practices of classmates.
Social and economic backgrounds.	One of two daughters of a well-to-do banker. Mother has independent income. Travels in summer. Has own roadster. Is given a large allowance.	An only child of a widowed mother who works in a laundry. Has a paper route and works in a grocery store in summer and on Saturday.	Father has low income from a fruit stand. Third in family of seven. Older brother helps father. Older sister keeps house for family. Helps father on weekends and after school.
Interests, ambitions, and goals.	Plays tennis, dances, associates with college students. Writes for high school paper. Leads student organizations. Expects to finish college before marrying.	Reads scientific journals. Hopes to become a research chemist. Plans to remain a bachelor and to support his mother. Spends little time in recreation. Attends lectures by scientists.	Sings well. Plays in orchestra. Would like to own a jazz band. Hopes to marry after his younger brothers and sisters finish high school. Will work while attending junior college.

ditionally the secondary school has treated all youth who professed an interest in going to college in an identical manner.

Many students of secondary school age have only fourth- or fifth-grade ability in reading or arithmetic and therefore cannot achieve success in school experiences that require a high level of reading or mathematical skill. These students, however, can develop skill in social living; in understanding of economic processes; in appreciation of aesthetic phases of life; and in attitudes, understandings, and competencies in democratic citizenship through *participation in*—even though they are handicapped in *reading about*—such phases of living.

We cannot expect the lower one-third in mental ability and scholastic aptitude to understand or to become interested in logically organized bodies of knowledge which had been planned and arranged many years ago for students selected from the ablest one-third, those for whom secondary schools existed until well into this century.

Differences That Affect School Learning

Distinction should be made between acquired individual differences that influence success in school, such as purpose, attitude, motives, habits, and those that are inherited and therefore not the student's responsibility.

Differences that affect school success. Out of the numerous types of differences that secondary school youth possess it is possible to identify certain ones that more than others affect success in school.

1. Intelligence. Without intelligence, learning cannot take place.

2. Purpose. Will to do must accompany intelligence in the form of directed effort toward a recognized goal.

3. Attitudes. The way one feels about a learning experience affects the amount of success achieved.

4. Motivation. Desire to achieve is the "touchstone" of learning.

5. Work Habits. Differences in work habits, in intensity of effort, in economy of energy and time, and in sustained application relate to success in school.

6. Adjustment. The differences that exist in the abilities of individuals to face new situations relates to success in school.

Differences that should not be permitted to affect school success. If secondary schools are to achieve their social function, certain

differences which individuals are unable to change should not be permitted to influence success in school.

1. Race. Racial differences are not significant so far as the aims and functions of secondary education are concerned. Variations in amount of success attained by members of different races is attributable to environmental factors. The complex of "racial superiority" that denies to certain racial groups the educational rights and privileges accorded to others supplies the reason for differences in success in school. Differences between races refutes the belief that degree of success depends upon racial differences.

2. Sex. Girls as a group make somewhat higher marks than do boys in secondary school subjects. This "superiority," however, is not an inherent characteristic of the female sex. Although girls reach puberty at an earlier age than boys, there is no evidence that physical precocity is accompanied by substantially superior mental ability. Differences in interests are more significant than differences in scholastic ability. It is sometimes suggested that girls are "naturally" more adaptable, congenial, docile, open-minded, and willing to follow suggestions and that they therefore succeed better in school than do boys. Scientific study is beginning to reveal that those differences that have been considered due to natural "female qualities" are actually the result of environment and training rather than of inheritance.

3. Inheritance. In the traditional school those qualities demanded for success were typically believed to be a part of a child's inheritance. Even in recent years leading educators have thought that success in secondary school was dependent upon a certain level of scholastic ability that could be possessed only as the result of inheritance. Evidence was presented to show that an IQ of 108 was necessary for success in secondary schools. It was believed further that mental ability was constant in kind and amount and could not be altered after birth. Such beliefs were compatible with a philosophy of secondary education which conceived the aims of the secondary school as preparation for college. As such, the secondary schools performed the major function of selection for college.

With acceptance of the belief that the education of all youth of secondary school age is essential for the perpetuation of our democratic society, we have come to recognize that in order to retain youth in secondary schools all must achieve some degree of success and happiness. Success, however, must be measured in terms of the goals of democratic living, goals that can be attained by all youth regardless of family background.

Summary

A wide variety of differences exists among the 20 million youth of secondary school age. In meeting the needs of these students, schools need to make provision for variation in interests, aptitudes, and capacities. In this process the undemocratic practice of segregation according to race, mental capacity, sex, family background, vocational choice, or religious beliefs should be avoided. In attempting to make a maximum contribution to the welfare of the entire social group, we have the responsibility of helping each individual, regardless of differences, to achieve continued adjustment, success, and happiness. Accomplishment of this aim will not be achieved until all of the 20 million American youth of secondary school age are enrolled and retained in secondary schools.

Related Experiences

1. Arrange for your class group to see the following films, if available.

Problem Children (18 minutes : silent). Produced by The University School, The Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio. Distributed by the State Division of Mental Hygiene, Columbus, Ohio. Depicts the individual differences possessed by early adolescent boys and the problems involved in helping them adjust satisfactorily to home and school experiences.

The Three A's (20 minutes : silent, with sound narration). Distributed by the British Information Services, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20, N. Y. Age, ability, and aptitude are carefully considered by teachers in England's modern schools to insure that each student receives the education most suited to his needs. This film shows how modern schools co-ordinate classroom studies with practical experiences so that the students learn to apply their knowledge to the demands of everyday life.

2. For the purpose of illustrating likenesses and differences that exist during adolescence, plan a conference in which members of your class list particular traits they possessed during this period.

3. Prepare for your class an analysis of what your own secondary school teachers did to provide for individual differences in the following:

   a. Social adjustment.
   b. Emotional response.
   c. Personal interests and goals.
   d. Intelligence.

4. Attempt to describe an imaginary school group or community in which no differences exist.

5. Arrange, in order of difficulty in adjustment to social situations, ten differences in emotional reaction among adolescent youth.

6. What home and community conditions prevent adolescent youth from adjusting satisfactorily to the emotion of love?

7. Arrange for a panel discussion on ways in which teachers can provide learning opportunities for youth of varying ability, interests, and spiritual traits and beliefs.

8. Outline a talk that a teacher might give to a Parent-Teachers Association on helping youth to achieve unity by utilizing diversity of emotional traits and differences in capacity and aptitude.

9. List the knowledges and understandings you have gained from the study and discussion of this chapter that will help you in your teaching.

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ZACHRY, C. B., AND LIGHTLY, M., *Emotion and Conduct in Adolescence.* New York: D. Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1940, 563 pp.

lieved it necessary to provide for the appropriate type of learning. It was believed, for example, (1) that habit formation is dependent on drill, (2) that reflective thinking can be cultivated only through a series of problem-solving experiences, and (3) that appreciation, attitudes, and ideals are a result of emotional experiences.

Most psychologists have come to believe that learning is a unitary process that is involved in all its aspects in every specific learning experience. It is now thought that the emotional accompaniment of habit formation may contribute more to the desired outcome than repetitive drill.[8] For example, the success of an individual in learning to play a musical instrument depends as much on the emotional concomitant as on practice. Some skills can be established with a single trial provided the purpose is strong and the emotional reaction satisfying. The college student who learns the complicated telephone number of an attractive girl the first time he hears it illustrates the truth of this statement. The senior high school girl who memorizes the words of a popular song upon hearing them once, the junior high school pupil who remembers the standings of major league baseball teams throughout the season, the child who successfully rides a bicycle during the first trial—all learn effectively without repetition because of the emotional accompaniment that is related to consciously held goals. These same individuals might, on the other hand, find it difficult to memorize the names of the bones of the body, to attain skill in the manipulation of algebraic formulae, or to paint a picture regardless of the number of repetitions practiced, unless such activities were also related to accepted purposes.

2. *Automatic responses.* If outcomes are thought of in terms of what a learner can do, they may be classified with respect to behavior responses—conduct, adaptations, adjustments. These results are usually thought of in relationship to the purpose of learning, i.e., the use to which it is to be put. Responses that are used automatically when future situations require them, such as typewriting, using number facts, spelling, driving a car, and other skills, represent one type of desired behavior or learning outcome. These consist of motor and neuro-motor responses that become, as a result of learning experiences, more or less automatic. In general, we believe that automatic responses are used in much the same way in which they were learned. They may become, in certain instances where they are ill-adapted to adjustmental needs,

[8] See Daniel Prescott and others, *Emotion and the Educative Process.* Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1938, 323 pp.

impediments to further learning. Yet they are considered necessary for satisfactory adjustment.

3. Intellectual activities. A second type of outcomes for learning may be discussed under the heading of intellectual activities. These may be designated by such terms as knowledge, insight, ideas, and meanings. They enable the individual to meet new situations that require types of response different from those habits and skills that are automatic. Thinking and problem-solving require adjustments that comprise intellectual changes. To insure the student's ability to meet new situations in later life, we are coming to realize the importance of providing him opportunities to face new experiences in school. This involves making provisions for students to engage in the process of forming associations, seeing relationships, formulating generalizations, and applying principles.

Application is an important activity in learning. In order to develop effective social competencies the student must have practice in applying principles that have been formulated through intellectual processes at the verbal level. Failure to make provision for translating intellectual understandings and generalizations into appropriate behavior tends to inhibit further intellectual activities.

4. Emotional associations. While a student is developing understandings, ideas, and knowledge, he experiences a type of emotional association that leads to responses that we call appreciations, attitudes, and ideals. Emotional associations have been characterized by some psychologists as incidental learning. This does not mean, however, that they are of secondary importance. Such concepts result from awareness that from each experience, the individual develops emotional reactions that influence behavior. In terms of desired outcomes it is just as important for the student to have the disposition and willingness to try to solve social problems, for example, as it is for him to understand their causes or to recognize their existence. To know how to deal with people is of little worth unless one has the attitude that leads him to carry his knowledge into practice.

5. Transfer. All organized learning experiences are predicated on the assumption that skills, habits, knowledges, understandings, attitudes, values, problem-solving abilities, and appreciations achieved during organized learning experiences will transfer to life situations. Individuals are in this manner helped to become "educated"—competent to face new problems and new situations and to arrive at socially acceptable solutions. If we did not believe

Chapter 8

UNDERSTANDING THE LEARNING PROCESS

In what way does one's interpretation of learning influence his teaching? . . . What misconceptions of learning have we frequently supported in the past? . . . Describe factors that influence the conception of learning that we hold. . . . What arguments support the supposition that the outcomes sought influence the nature of learning? . . . What are the implications of the premise that learning is both a process and a product? . . . Describe the two types of learning theory. . . . What outcomes of learning are essential to growth? . . . Discuss the relationship of emotional outcomes to the nature of learning experience. . . . Characterize the importance and nature of transfer as an outcome of learning. . . . What is meant by the concept of learning as adjustment? . . . By what factors may learning be furthered? . . . Describe various influences that inhibit learning. . . . Formulate principles of learning that are adaptable to democratic teaching.

Whether learning takes place in the school, the home, the church, through the press, the radio, or other media, teaching is always directed toward changing behavior. Whenever changes in behavior occur, they are called learning.

The interrelatedness of teaching and learning is such that this concept of learning goes far to determine the quality and the nature of teaching provided. If we believe, for example, that mind, like muscle, must be developed through exercise, we will likely place strong emphasis in our teaching upon drill with little concern for the meaningfulness of the experience to the student. The learning exercises that result will likely be a type of mass mental gymnastics carried on in unison.

If, on the other hand, we consider learning to be a process of participating in meaningful experiences that lead to gaining of

insight into relationships of cause and effect, our efforts in teaching may be directed toward helping each student find experiences for himself that have meaning, purpose, and value. If, in the latter instance, we are cognizant also of the differences that exist in individuals—in background, interests, purposes, capacities, readiness—we will recognize that it is impossible for two people to learn exactly the same thing at the same time and in the same manner. As contrasted to the mass mental drill that results from the mind-training conception of learning, concern for developing insights necessitates the provision of differentiated experiences for all members of a learning group.

Common Misconceptions of Learning

It is sometimes helpful to examine the mistakes we have made and the false hypotheses on which we have operated as a basis for considering the meaning of learning. Usually those of us who have held such misconceptions about learning have done so in the belief that we were following the best theory and practice known at the time. Many of us were merely following without question those teaching procedures that had been employed previously. But even in such instances we have assumed that those who taught us—both in secondary schools and colleges—must have followed the best theory and practice.

The tendency to teach as we were taught, to teach without examining the hypotheses of learning upon which such teaching was predicated represents, perhaps, the major reason for the lag that now exists between our theory and practice of teaching. It is common to defend teaching procedures in terms of theories of learning that have been long disproved and discarded by educational psychologists. Misconceptions of learning presented below illustrate certain points of view that are inconsistent with our best understanding of the learning process. They are intended to serve as "danger signals" to those who seek to improve the quality of their teaching.

Is learning concerned with acquiring knowledge?[1] The assumption that students attend school to acquire knowledge frequently carries with it a corollary belief that knowledge is something that exists as eternal truth. This is the basis for the belief that only out of the past may we find true knowledge. This point of view contributes to the notion that acquisition of subject

[1] Earl C. Kelley, *Education for What Is Real.* New York: Harper and Brothers, 1947, p. 15.

The concept of learning as growth helps us to start with the learner where he is and to know how to relate new to old experiences at various stages of his development. It helps us to recognize, also, the quality of experiences that must be provided if they are to be related to the learner's needs and future goals in such a manner that they function in his living. When we think of learning as a process of growth, our teaching will assume the obligation of providing a variety of experiences adapted to different maturity levels in order to ensure that growth will be maintained as a gradual process of maturation.

Learning as a process of adjustment. The purpose of all learning is the adjustment that results. Because learning aims at adjustment, and inasmuch as no learning takes place when adjustment does not result, it may be concluded that *learning actually is a process of adjustment.*

1. Meaning of adjustment. Explanation of adjustment requires consideration of both its biological and psychological aspects. Biologically, the individual is adjusted when tensions causing imbalance are relieved, making possible the attainment of a satisfying bodily state. Tension caused by hunger, for example, is relieved by food, and the individual's equilibrium is restored. Likewise, tension resulting from extreme heat may be resolved by perspiration, an involuntary bodily response, or through such voluntary actions as cessation from physical activity or change of immediate environmental conditions.

Psychologically, adjustment consists of resolving mental and emotional tensions that cause imbalance in the individual. Tension caused by the strong desire to establish friendships is normally relieved through social participation, and abnormally through behavior such as withdrawal from participation. Tensions resulting from humiliating experiences are modified by repression or willful forgetting. Psychological tensions may be created when a student consciously accepts an assignment for learning, whether it is functional or nonfunctional in terms of his goals. Such tensions lead to engagement in such study activities as will contribute to their resolution. When a student does not accept an assignment as something he feels the need for accomplishing—as a means to an end, either the achievement of a consciously accepted objective, or the avoidance of punishment—he experiences no tensions and, therefore, is not motivated to action in relation to the assignment.

Adjustment, then, is a state of balance resulting from resolving tensions. Since tensions are numerous, adjustment is never a unitary condition but consists of a composite of balances reached

and maintained with varying degrees of success and with different degrees of interrelatedness.

2. *Relationship of learning to adjustment.* Learning is a process of achieving adjustment or the means by which adjustment is maintained. Adjustment thus achieved becomes the end-result or the product of learning. When an individual learns, he relieves tension or tensions and thereby achieves adjustment. When an individual fails to learn, tensions are increased that contribute to lack of adjustment.

The individual who learns becomes adjusted to his environment; when an individual fails to learn, his resulting maladjustment may cause him to seek escape from his environment. The degree of seriousness of the maladjustment resulting from failure to learn determines the type of escape to which he may resort. He may only absent himself temporarily from certain environmental influences as does the student who "skips" class on the day when a test is given or when he is unprepared for participation. In more serious cases he may rebel against his environment and attempt to create a new one as does the individual who chooses a life of lawlessness.

3. *Relationship of learning as adjustment to social purposes.* The extent to which capacity for learning is expanded or developed depends upon the learner's experiences within a particular environment. The process of learning itself consists of adjusting to environmental situations. For example, a child who grows up in an authoritarian society learns through adjusting to the requirements of adults of his family and community. He learns to respond automatically to directions and accepts orders from his superiors as a matter of course.

The nature of the learning process in an authoritarian society is illustrated by the following incident:

William's father had moved from Europe to the State of Illinois when he was fifteen years old. Fifteen years later he had accumulated sufficient means to marry and to begin the rearing of a family. William was the second child.

Prior to entering the elementary school, William had never been permitted the freedom to disagree with his parents. In his home, his father was the master, the head of the household. William, his mother, and his older sister had all learned to do exactly as directed by the father. When William entered school he readily established a behavior pattern that, outwardly at least, gave evidence of complete submission to the authority of the teacher. For him, what the teacher said or what was printed in the textbook was always right. In his play experiences

matter taken on authority—from a textbook or the teacher—is learning itself.

Is learning an additive process? It is sometimes assumed that learning is a process of diligently adding fact on fact, principle on principle, and formula on formula in much the same way that one would physically climb a ladder or build a structure of bricks. By this hypothesis it is natural to conclude that all students should be expected to pass through identical learning steps with the same materials. Once logical organization and segmentation of subject-matter facts has been identified, teaching procedures may be outlined. It is upon this assumption, also, that authority is found for teaching separate items of information and for using measuring instruments (for example, true-false, multiple-choice, and matching tests) that are designed to measure the number of facts the student has added to his "store" of knowledge.

Do subject matter and learning experiences mean the same to both teacher and student and to different students? It is a common error to assume that all individuals perceive the same thing in a given experience or situation.[2] This mistake leads us to attempt to teach our students exactly what we have learned or found useful. Illustrations of this fallacy abound in our teaching. All have heard teachers conducting recitations make such remarks as "Your interpretation is not quite right," "What is the meaning of this expression?" and "Tell me what was the most important battle fought during the Revolutionary War." In each instance, the impression of the teacher or of the writer of the textbook constitutes the only basis for determining the correct answer. College students who have studied Shakespeare are familiar with the age-old game of predicting the "famous quotations" they will be asked to identify on the final examination. Such efforts must necessarily center around determining those passages that appeal most to the instructor. Instead of furthering thinking, feeling, and interpretation, this kind of learning actually causes students to indulge in the hypocritical practice of endeavoring to agree exactly with the teacher and the textbook and to disregard their own perceptions, convictions, and understanding.

Is learning a process of memorizing, remembering, and reproducing factual knowledge? Memorization for the purpose of reciting and passing written examinations has constituted the major activities of learning in many of our secondary schools. Frequently this process is concerned with facts so remote from their natural setting and so distorted in their relative value, that what

[2] Earl C. Kelley, *op. cit.*, pp. 114.

is memorized is divorced from its meaning in a contextual situation. For many students, learning becomes a process of rote memorization of information found in the textbook and prescribed by the teacher. As soon as its usefulness is past—that of satisfying the teacher during the recitation or on an examination—it is quickly forgotten. It is for this reason that in English classes we teach at all grade levels, from the fifth or sixth on, the names of the parts of speech and rules of punctuation. Since the information is not taught functionally, it is retained for relatively short periods of time and must subsequently be relearned. And for similar reasons eighth-grade students score higher on examinations in arithmetic than do high school seniors. Such conditions find their cause in the premise that learning is a process of memorization.

Is learning furthered by emphasis upon the teacher's purposes? Many of us have prided ourselves that by the end of the first or second day with a new class we were able to have every student "hard at work" on tasks we had assigned and directed toward purposes prescribed by us. It is not always safe to conclude that such activity results in satisfactory learning. Students may respond to external pressures and perform certain imposed duties without being motivated in such a way that results in good learning. Overtly, students may engage in all the prescribed activities of the curriculum—reading, reciting, experimenting—but if there are no significant changes in their thinking, feeling, and acting, good learning is not taking place.

Are tasks which are difficult, disagreeable, and without apparent purpose for the learner sources of good mental discipline? This question emphasizes our frequent rationalization for indifference toward the meaningfulness of learning activities. Whenever we find that students are not interested in what we desire to teach them, when they can see no value concepts that are "sacred" to us, when there is no readiness for given tasks, we are likely to defend our "poor teaching" with the argument, "It's good for students to do what they don't like to do. In such manner character is formed."

This point of view implies belief in the automatic transfer value to be derived from the study of given subjects. This outmoded belief still lingers to some extent in actual teaching practices. Although we have long agreed that the study of Latin and Greek is no longer functional and meaningful to a majority of students, we frequently still insist that students can learn English efficiently through the study of a foreign language. And although it is apparent that increasing numbers of high school students find no

interest in the study of higher mathematics and technical English, we continue to argue that through the study of such subjects reasoning powers and verbal skills may be developed that are essential to the study of law, history, science, and even art and music.

Closely related to the dubious premise that hard, disagreeable tasks contribute to mental training and character formation is the belief that "easy" learning is of little worth. In adhering to this position we reject the notion that the teacher should make it easy for students to learn by reducing to simple terms the material and ideas to be learned. For many years after the discovery of anesthetics many people rejected "painless childbirths" for mothers on the ground that the suffering was "nature's way." With similar blind loyalty to tradition many of us still pay allegiance to the belief that "good learning is necessarily painful to the learner." We often support this premise in our teaching despite convincing evidence that students who learn best and most are those for whom learning is easiest and for whom learning materials are so planned that they may be easily learned.

Are responses to a learning situation simple and controllable? We often overlook the fact that while students are memorizing and reproducing factual material, seemingly simple responses, their true reactions to the learning experiences are multiple and varied. Such reactions may be either positive or negative. Students who perform prescribed tasks satisfactorily may be developing actual attitudes of dislike for the material with which they are dealing. This situation is illustrated by the number of people who refuse to read "classical" literature after being forced to study it in school. It may account in part, also, for the fact that although most of our citizens finish elementary schools and half of them actually earn senior high school diplomas, many later exhibit apathy toward improvement of public education. It is a strange paradox to find people who agree that education is vital for individual and group existence unwilling to see that adequate provision is made for such a social necessity.

Do changes in attitude and behavior result automatically from intellectual experiences? Herein lies one of the obvious fallacies relative to learning. We have assumed that students who learn to pledge allegiance to the flag are automatically loyal to their country; that when students are confronted with the arguments that the white race is not superior by nature or predestination to the black, brown, or yellow races, they will actively support equal opportunity and mutual respect for all; and that when techniques

of scientific or logical inquiry are perfected through study in school, an objective approach to social problems will naturally and inevitably result.

Are "learning about" and "learning to do" synonymous processes? Learning facts and rules does not naturally result in appropriate action. We know that students may agree intellectually to the arguments that people of Jewish faith should be treated with the same respect and kindness accorded to anyone else, but yet cheer openly aggressive and hostile actions toward these same people. Contrary to popular opinion, even the trained scientist does not always "first ask for the facts, almost automatically" in every situation.[3] Reputable men of science out of their laboratories frequently display distressing inability to bring scientific methods to bear upon problems of community living. Likewise, loyalty to one's group or nation goes deeper than intellectual arguments, beautiful words, and colorful ceremony. Those who actually fail to experience democratic living cannot be depended on to protect it regardless of the extent of their exposure to verbal descriptions of its values.

Factors That Influence Our Concept of Learning

Three factors bear directly upon the concept of learning that is acceptable in given situations.

Theories of learning. Hilgard[4] has pointed out that we have no one theory that satisfactorily explains the learning process. Instead, many differing points of view are held by psychologists who have endeavored to discover the secrets of the natural laws of learning that govern all experience. Against this background of indefiniteness and conflicting opinion we can readily understand how any particular theory of learning will significantly influence our concept of the learning that occurs.

Two types of learning theories. Theories of learning have been classified into two distinct types:[5] (1) the association theories which include those that have been labeled as reflex arc and stimulus-response theories; (2) the field theories such as the gestalt, neo-gestalt, organismic, and sign-significate theories. Although differences between these two types of theories are not always sharply defined, it is possible to identify the factors that cause the

[3] James Conant, *Education for a Divided World*. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1948, 249 pp.

[4] Ernest R. Hilgard, *Theories of Learning*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1948, 409 pp.

[5] *Ibid.*

two points of view to exist. All theories in one way or another are based upon the nature of mental processes involved in learning and the behavior outcomes that result from the learning process. Actually, it is impossible to exclude from consideration of the meaning of learning either of these two types. The first depends upon the theory of mind that one accepts; whereas the second is concerned with the relationship between mind and responses to an environment. Relative emphasis upon these two elements of learning account for differences in conception of theory of learning.

1. Association theories. The theory that is accepted determines the provisions for learning that will be made. Early psychologists believed that the mind, the total functioning of the nervous system, was *atomistic* in nature. It was believed that each specific mental action was the result of a definite response to a specific stimulus appropriate to the reaction sought. This theory of mind considered conditioning of high importance, and relied upon the so-called "laws of learning," such as those formulated by Thorndike, to bring about desired outcomes. Specific associations were thought to exist between a single stimulus and a given response. Simply illustrated, this assumption would appear as follows:

A given stimulus (Stimulus the same to all learners.) . . . will produce . . . **a predictable response.** (Resulting response the same for all individuals and in all instances.)

Repetitive drill was the means by which habit formation was accomplished—in conformity to the law that, other things being equal, frequency of reaction assures permanency of action. When translated into teaching procedures, children in school were compelled to repeat, for example, arithmetical combinations in the belief that by so doing, responses would become automatic. Students, likewise, were required to repeat historical dates, rules of grammar, mathematical formulae, economic principles, scientific laws, and titles of literary productions in the belief that such was the most economical way of forming fixed habits and understandings associated with specific knowledge. As a result of such practice it was believed that the mind was "trained" to perform in all situations in which learning was demanded. Because of the exact nature of the response that results in such learning, the individual does not develop ability to react to total situations, a type of learning outcome now believed necessary for satisfactory adjustment.

2. *Field theories.*[6] Other theories of learning—gestalt and organismic—hold that instead of specific responses evoked by specific stimuli in the immediate environment, mental action consists of behavior influenced by a composite of previous responses and the pattern of present stimuli in relation to the learner's purpose or goal to be achieved. These theories suggest that learning denotes a variety of changes that take place in various patterns in different individuals. According to field theories, less dependence is placed on provision of specific stimuli, and more attention is given to the unlimited effect of clusters of stimuli in relation to the learner's background and his insight into projected outcomes. To further learning according to these theories, a wide variety of firsthand experiences should be used as a basis for selection of responses that afford integration to the extension of already existing behavior patterns. Such theories deny that learning is simply an additive process resulting from responses to individual stimuli. They hold that learning takes place through a process of selecting from many stimuli only those that are appropriate to adjustments sought.

Nature of the learner. A second factor that influences the hypotheses related to learning is an understanding of the growth characteristics of the learner. Such considerations are directed toward the student's adjustment at a given moment. The teacher must consider temperament, level of maturity, degree of security, intensity of purpose, native aptitudes, and personal values.

When we ignore, for example, the level of maturity of a given individual in assuming how he will learn, we are likely to draw false conclusions relative to the learning process which will occur in him. Because individuals are different, learning processes will vary. As a result, some students learn easily through reading books; others react better to visual experiences. Some must actually perform tasks in the shop or laboratory or in the community in order to learn. Although theories of learning and generalizations about teaching are helpful, they are inadequate as a source of understanding how each student will learn at a given time and in a specific situation.

The outcomes of learning.[7] Of genuine importance to learning

[6] Many variations of the field theories of learning have been advocated. Helpful descriptions and analyses are offered in:

Ernest R. Hilgard, *Theories of Learning*, New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1948.

National Society for the Study of Education, *The Psychology of Learning*, Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, Forty-First Yearbook, Part II, 1942.

[7] Nathaniel Cantor, *Dynamics of Learning*. Buffalo: Foster and Steward, 1946, pp. 31–50.

in transfer at all, we would not provide schools but would insist that each individual learn only from real experiences.

No greater source of disagreement upon the nature of learning is to be found than in connection with the conflicting beliefs relative to how transfer takes place and how much transfer may be expected from certain types of learning. Thorndike proposed that the degree of transfer depends on the presence of identical elements in the original and in the new learning situations. The concept of transfer developed by "gestalt" psychologists is one of transposition. It suggests that a pattern of dynamic relationships discovered or understood in one situation may be applicable to another.[9] This point of view holds that learning by understanding —insight learning—is superior to rote processes because understanding is transposable to a wider range of situations and is more effective in its application.

Nature of Learning

The following formal definitions, without considering the manner or nature of the process, characterize learning as something acquired:

Webster International Dictionary

"Any acquisition of an organism of knowledge, skill, or modes of behavior."

Dictionary of Education [10]

"Change in response or behavior (such as innovation, elimination, or modification of responses, involving some degree of permanence), caused partly or wholly by experience, such 'experience' being in the main conscious, but sometimes including significant unconscious components, as is common to *motor learning* or in reaction to unrecognized stimuli; includes behavior changes in the emotional sphere, but more commonly refers to the acquisition of symbolic knowledge or motor skills."

Other definitions call attention to learning as activity, behavior, and experience:

Woodworth [11]

"Any activity of the individual which develops him and so affects his subsequent activity."

[9] Ernest Hilgard, *op. cit.*

[10] Carter V. Good (Editor), *Dictionary of Education*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1945, 495 pp.

[11] R. S. Woodworth, *Psychology*. New York: Henry Holt and Co., Inc., (Third Edition), 1934, 334 pp.

Pressey [12]	Rather than considering learning as something separate from the process of development in the individual, Pressey suggests that learning "*is* the process of development of behavior."
Bode [13]	A "change in experience such as to provide for increased control of behavior."
Hilgard [14]	"Learning is the process by which an activity originates or is changed through training procedures (whether in the laboratory or in the natural environment) as distinguished from changes by factors not attributable to training."

In emphasizing learning as a process of changing behavior through experience, the definitions presented imply that the more varied the experiences of learners, the more they will learn, and the more easily they will accomplish their learning. They emphasize that the bases of learning for youth are to be found in their *living*.

Learning, a process and a product. The meaning of learning is two-fold. The term may refer to the *process* or the *product* according to the emphasis placed on it. In every learning situation a process takes place and a product results. The process is what goes on within the individual when he learns; the product is the result achieved by the process—the outcome of the learning activities in which the individual engages. Both phases of the process are necessary to complete its meaning.

Learning as growth. Learning is progressive. It implies the reorganization of experience so that what has been learned will have new meaning for the present and furnish a basis for future learning. What has been learned must be adapted to what is being learned. Since learning begins with the present experiences of the learner, it would always have to start at the beginning if past learnings were not utilized. We cannot expect a student to adjust himself to experiences beyond his present level of understanding simply as a result of being exposed to them. Higher levels of learning and increased capacity for insight and appreciation are achieved through accumulated growth experiences—through a process of development rather than one of transplantation.

[12] S. L. Pressey, *Psychology and the New Education*. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1933, p. 334.
[13] Boyd H. Bode, *How We Learn*. Boston: D. C. Heath and Co., 1940, p. 234.
[14] Ernest R. Hilgard, *op. cit.*, p. 5.

The concept of learning as growth helps us to start with the learner where he is and to know how to relate new to old experiences at various stages of his development. It helps us to recognize, also, the quality of experiences that must be provided if they are to be related to the learner's needs and future goals in such a manner that they function in his living. When we think of learning as a process of growth, our teaching will assume the obligation of providing a variety of experiences adapted to different maturity levels in order to ensure that growth will be maintained as a gradual process of maturation.

Learning as a process of adjustment. The purpose of all learning is the adjustment that results. Because learning aims at adjustment, and inasmuch as no learning takes place when adjustment does not result, it may be concluded that *learning actually is a process of adjustment.*

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Psychologically, adjustment consists of resolving mental and emotional tensions that cause imbalance in the individual. Tension caused by the strong desire to establish friendships is normally relieved through social participation, and abnormally through behavior such as withdrawal from participation. Tensions resulting from humiliating experiences are modified by repression or willful forgetting. Psychological tensions may be created when a student consciously accepts an assignment for learning, whether it is functional or nonfunctional in terms of his goals. Such tensions lead to engagement in such study activities as will contribute to their resolution. When a student does not accept an assignment as something he feels the need for accomplishing—as a means to an end, either the achievement of a consciously accepted objective, or the avoidance of punishment—he experiences no tensions and, therefore, is not motivated to action in relation to the assignment.

Adjustment, then, is a state of balance resulting from resolving tensions. Since tensions are numerous, adjustment is never a unitary condition but consists of a composite of balances reached

and maintained with varying degrees of success and with different degrees of interrelatedness.

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The nature of the learning process in an authoritarian society is illustrated by the following incident:

William's father had moved from Europe to the State of Illinois when he was fifteen years old. Fifteen years later he had accumulated sufficient means to marry and to begin the rearing of a family. William was the second child.

Prior to entering the elementary school, William had never been permitted the freedom to disagree with his parents. In his home, his father was the master, the head of the household. William, his mother, and his older sister had all learned to do exactly as directed by the father. When William entered school he readily established a behavior pattern that, outwardly at least, gave evidence of complete submission to the authority of the teacher. For him, what the teacher said or what was printed in the textbook was always right. In his play experiences

with other children, whenever the teacher was not present, William tended to be a bully. He consistently tried to dominate the decision-making for the group and readily told others what they should do.

In this illustration, William obviously had followed a process of learning—imitation, automatic response without analysis—that led to two observable kinds of adjustment. First, he exhibited complete submissiveness in situations in which he felt subject to higher authority; and secondly, he showed the opposite quality of domination in play situations with his fellows. Both of these products of learning—submissiveness and domination—are characteristics of the ways in which individuals adjust to the environmental forces of authoritarianism.

It is not necessary to turn to the son of an immigrant family to find illustrations of learning directed by authoritarian practices. They may be found in homes that draw from religious dogmas absolute dicta for living, or in homes in which parents, as a result of abnormal fears, supervise their children in an authoritarian manner. They may be found in school situations in which we demand complete obedience and absolute conformity to school regulations. In learning situations, such as that illustrated above, a particular process of learning eventually leads to a given pattern of adjustment.

The relationship between the process and product of learning is direct, definite, and inevitable. In our society major concern is felt for the product of learning—behavior patterns—and adjustment to an on-going environment. Learning that promotes particular ways of adjustment is encouraged. We attempt, for example, to provide learning processes that lead to the achievement of the following outcomes or types of adjustment: attitudes and habits of co-operation, respect for others, shared participation, acceptance of responsibilities related to group needs, dependence on reason as the means of solving problems, self-discipline and self-direction, creativeness, and a concern for the welfare of the group and an interest in its continued improvement.

Determiners of Learning

In addition to understanding the theories of learning both in terms of what goes on when learning occurs and in terms of the outcomes of learning, it is helpful to consider some of the conditions that influence learning and tend to determine its effectiveness. These determiners of learning can then be taken into

account in planning the kinds of experiences that most likely facilitate learning.

Individual interests. Interest is thought of as a feeling or condition accompaning activity so satisfying to the learner that continued pursuit of a goal is maintained. When an individual feels that an activity has value in relationship to his needs, interest results. Interest may determine not only the amount learned but also the quality of learning. The adolescent who has a high degree of interest gives wholehearted attention to the task of executing his plans. Interest makes possible sustained application to research investigation, to problem-solving, and to performing such activities as practicing rigorously on a musical instrument or working diligently to prepare a speech. Certain interests are brought by the adolescent to his learning experiences. These we may utilize to make further learning possible in relationship to expanding concepts of immediate and future goals.

Security in a satisfying environment. Although individual purposes, drives, and interests have potential value for learning, it is only in an environment that learning can develop. Effectiveness of the interaction between the individual and his environment determines whether learning will take place and to what degree. If physical conditions are pleasant and the social setting stimulating, learning will be facilitated.

A sense of security in personal relationships is necessary to effective learning. When individuals are torn by fears relative to their relationships with others, when efforts to associate with peers meet with repulsion, when attempts to attain personal goals result in frustration, the best quality of learning cannot be expected. In school situations fears concerning marks, promotion, or personal embarrassment in the presence of friends frequently prevent the development of a sense of personal security.

As teachers we play an important role in determining the surroundings to which the learner reacts. Not the least of the influences that we control are our own personal relationships with students. By approaching our task with sympathetic understanding in an effort to help students gain confidence in each other, we contribute to the establishment of feelings of security that promote learning.

Level of maturation. No two students can be expected to learn in the same way or by the same rate. No individual can learn with the same ease at different times in his school career. Learning is determined by the student's physical, emotional, and intellectual level of growth.

Degree of maturation with respect to social competence determines, for example, how well the student will develop skill in group living. Emotional maturation determines the effect of experience upon the individual and will result in frustration or facilitation of learning according to how well the learning situation is related to this level of growth. There is no question, of course, as to the relation of maturation of intellectual powers to successful learning. This is the type of growth in which we are most accustomed to recognize relationships to quality and amount of learning. Individuals differ in amount and pattern of development of intellectual capacities and in kinds of intelligence possessed. In understanding and promoting learning it is necessary that we provide experiences suitable to all levels of maturation and adapted to individual variations in patterns of growth.

Self-activity. One of the oldest axioms in teaching is "Learn to do by doing." Successful teachers have always considered this the best way of learning, especially when a skill is being developed. In learning, however, when the outcome is emotional stability, understanding, or appreciation, the "doing" is difficult to conceive since the activity is not so easily identified as is a motor skill. Since mental activity is not directly observable, the activity of the learner is only inferred.

Basically, self-participation determines growth in learning, but it is only by actions of the learner that we can say that learning has taken place. Overt behavior can be observed, and the activity of the individual in initiating, directing, and controlling his own learning can be noted. In the case of social learnings, judgment must be based on what the learner does as a result of his learning. Whether tolerance has been learned, for example, can be measured by judging the extent to which the individual acts in a way that demonstrates tolerance and acceptance of others. In a similar manner the development of skill and co-operative behavior can be determined by observing the individual in his relationship to other members of a group.

Motivation. Unless the desire to learn is present, no real learning will take place. We have always used some means of motivating learning. Practices range from the employment of fear of punishment for failure, reward for achievement, praise or blame, and prizes or demerits to arousing interests in the learning experience by relating it directly to the learner's recognized aims. Not only is amount of learning dependent on the existence of motivation but also on the quality of learning—its permanence. Habits re-

lated to the continuation of learning are determined by the type of motivation employed.

Freedom to act. Burnham's classic formula, "a task, a plan, and freedom," is applicable to all learning. The learner first of all needs to accept a task as worthy of accomplishment. When plans have been made appropriate to the job to be done, he should be accorded freedom to work out the plans agreed upon. This formula applies both to individual and group work. Freedom does not mean license, a condition that typically leads to chaos and lack of accomplishment or to results incompatible with social values. Instead, it implies permitting the learner to use creativeness, initiative, originality, and imagination in performing assumed responsibilities. Such a condition would make the student feel free at any time to offer suggestions for improving the learning situation and for changing modes of procedure. Use of freedom will depend both on the ability of students to assume responsibility for self-direction and on the willingness of teachers to make freedom possible. These conditions can be achieved only through practice. The process may be slow, at least gradual, but as students are accorded freedom to carry on learning activities they gain competence and habits of using freedom in learning. Students learn patterns of exercising initiative and assuming responsibility in proportion to their opportunities to practice this type of behavior in a variety of situations.

Since teaching exists for the purpose of promoting learning, we should have as our goal the facilitation of learning that will enable each student as well as the group as a whole to meet the purposes of the secondary school. For accomplishing this objective, Olsen suggests that we provide "effective learning situations . . . which enable the learner, acting as a dynamic, unified, intelligent, creative, and purposive being, to interact constructively with all wholesome experiences of life . . . found in the physical, biological and social environment." [15]

Deterrents to Learning

Besides knowing the factors that positively influence learning and determine its extent and quality, we should be able to recognize certain underlying causes for the student's difficulty in learning. These deterrents to learning may be classified as personal,

[15] Edward G. Olsen, *School and Community*. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1945, p. 31.

and they must learn the conditions under which this behavior may be so interpreted.

5. In looking for evidence of understanding there is a need to broaden the base of the observations by employing evaluative procedures that go beyond the usual kinds of paper-and-pencil testing.

6. Research must be undertaken to improve many evaluative procedures and techniques that are now employed spasmodically, clumsily, and uncertainly.

7. Textbooks on classroom evaluation must give more attention than is commonly given to the need for evaluating understanding and the procedures suitable for this task.

Criteria for evaluating growth in social competency. The contribution of teaching to growth in social competency may be appraised in accordance with the quality of the evaluative processes upon which it depends to accomplish social and other essential purposes. By using criteria such as the following, such appraisal may be accomplished and its benefits be put into operation:

1. To what extent is the chosen theory of evaluation compatible with desirable social processes?

2. Are the goals sought in evaluation of student growth formulated in terms of social competencies?

3. Are the chosen methods of evaluation exclusively formal or informal?

4. Is evaluation the function of external authority only?

5. Does the evaluation employed contribute to increasing competence in self-evaluation as well as co-operative participation in evaluation?

6. Does the evaluation respect the dignity and worth of all students?

7. Does the evaluation tend to make all students feel more secure in their personal relationships with each other?

8. Does evaluation promote the development of desirable emotional responses which lead toward the maintenance of emotional stability?

9. Does the evaluation develop blind obedience to authority to the exclusion of promoting powers of critical thought?

10. Does evaluation assist in establishing group rapport?

11. Is the evaluation by the teacher based on acquaintance with the whole child?

12. Does the evaluation stress fragments of subject matter as ends in themselves?

13. Are the results of evaluating used as a basis for punishment?

14. Are students encouraged to engage in specific overt behaviors for evaluation purposes only?
15. Are students encouraged to share in formulating and selecting procedures for evaluation?
16. Are the results of evaluation used as the basis for rewards?
17. Is evaluation conceived as an integral part of teaching and learning?
18. Does the program of evaluation inhibit desirable learning?
19. Does evaluation lead to competition or rivalry rather than to co-operation and good fellowship?

Principles of democratic evaluation. Certain principles such as the following may assist the teacher in planning and carrying out a program of evaluation:

1. Evaluate the learning of the individual in the light of the total situation.
2. Make the process of evaluation flexible so that it may be adapted to the needs of any group.
3. Include all important outcomes in the evaluation program not merely those that can be counted or measured quantitatively.
4. Base evaluation on functional integrative outcomes instead of additive or atomistic learnings.
5. Permit those being evaluated to share in the process.
6. Know as much as possible about the previous experiences and the present out-of-school lives of those whose growth and learning are to be evaluated.
7. Provide for continuous evaluation and for shifts in the direction of experience when indicated as desirable.
8. Make evaluation a social process. Use methods and instruments of evaluation that are recognized to be useful in evaluating social behavior.
9. Make evaluation personal. Provide for assisting the individual learner to improve his capacity for self-evaluation by developing ability to analyze the significance of his own experiences.
10. Center evaluation upon needs, purposes, processes, improvement of experience, and growth in social competence rather than upon the building of skills, fixing habits, or acquiring specific and often unrelated facts.

Summary

Evaluation implies appraisal or ascertaining the value of some process or result or of some combination or sequence of causes

social, and those existing within a school environment. Some deterrents to learning can be removed by means of co-operative effort of the family, school, and community.

Personal deterrents to learning. Lack of native ability must be recognized as a definite deterrent. Students with low verbal ability will experience difficulty in reading or in learning a foreign language. Those with limited number ability will find little satisfaction in attempting to learn formal mathematics or in thinking in quantitative terms. Slow reaction time will make the learning of certain motor skills laborious and displeasing to some students Lack of creative ability may place the student in an unfavorable situation if he is called upon to engage in aesthetic activities. It is important to be able to identify such deterrents to learning and to adjust the school program to students in such a way as to provide for successful learning within the limits of their abilities.

Lack of maturity, physical, mental, and emotional, may delay for a time the satisfactions that attend successful learning. With patience and care in starting where the student is, this handicap may be overcome.

Lack of interest or purpose is a common deterrent to learning. Interest may be built through success at the student's level of ability and maturation and through recognition of the relation of the learning to be undertaken to satisfactions and needs of the student. Purpose, or the movement toward restoring equilibrium, will be established when the student realizes his lack of adjustment in the learning situation and the causes for such conditions.

Physical and mental health bear a close relationship to success in learning. If either is poor, learning becomes difficult. Physical handicaps, such as those connected with poor eyesight, hearing difficulty, circulatory or respiratory diseases, or abnormal thyroid activity, decayed teeth, and infected tonsils, can often be remedied with the help of parents, school health officers, and the family physician.

Mental health depends on previous experiences, present feelings, and security and acceptance by oneself and one's classmates and others; on emotional adjustments to the varied and numerous changes that take place during adolescence; and on the demands made upon the individual to fit into the social environment. Instead of welcoming quietness and withdrawal from participation in activity, we should be conscious that these forms of behavior are danger signals that indicate the presence or the approach of disturbances related to mental health. Often we regard what we call "laziness," refusal to work, bad habits of work, surliness, dis-

agreeableness, and poor attitudes merely as faulty habits of the student or results of wrong instruction by his family or former teachers. These should be looked upon rather as overt symptoms of more basic causes underlying failure to learn.

Feelings of frustration accompanying conflicts that exist between the adolescent's desire for independence and his need to rely upon others for direction is often a significant deterrent to learning. When natural impulses are blocked, the emotional state aroused may be of such strength that learning cannot take place effectively. This condition may be transferred into many areas of adjustment. The student must be shown how to use his impulses to direct activity into socially acceptable channels as well as to control emotional reactions that produce harmful effects on his relation to the group as well as to his own adjustment.

Social deterrents to learning. Several deterrents that result from the environment of the learner are related to the socio-economic status of the family. Often we can make no real contribution toward modification of home conditions, but we can recognize them and help the student regard them as conditions that should be faced realistically. Feelings of embarrassment or humiliation because of family background, lack of economic security, inability to satisfy desires for money, clothes, and recreation may prevent effective learning.

Nonacceptance within a peer group is a real problem for many students. Young people eagerly seek the security of congenial relationships with members of both sexes in various types of interest groups—social, recreational, and pre-vocational. Failure to achieve satisfying relationships in such groups inhibits learning and may result in withdrawal from school altogether.

Community and world conditions may be such as to deter the adolescent in his learning. In times of war or in the face of war talk, young men and women have their attention called away from school work. Their anxiety is paramount because their futures will be directly affected. Conflicting political and philosophic ideologies held by parents and youth influence their working together and may disturb their relationships to the point that learning is blocked. Other factors, such as finding a job, concern for social problems, and inability to accept community attitudes and practices, are additional examples of social deterrents to learning.

Factors in school that deter learning. Lock-step methods that put all students through the same performance and fail to take into account individual differences can deter learning at all levels.

The exercise of restraint, the practice of discouraging the use of initiative, of setting arbitrary standards, or of utilizing a system of motivation extrinsic to the learning process or unrelated to desired outcomes may decrease learning or inhibit it altogether for some members of a class. Lack of group rapport due to failure of the teacher or classmates to accept each individual, to recognize his worth to the group, and to respect his interests so long as they are not antisocial and not opposed to the larger interests of the group serves also as a hindrance to learning.

If the learning situation is not adapted to the learner or is not suitable for attaining the desired outcomes and is incompatible with the ideals of the society, appropriate learning may never occur. When adverse emotional factors impinge upon the acts of learning, such as the stress placed upon performing tasks in an acceptable manner, the results will be unfavorable to maximum achievement.

Exclusive use of measuring instruments that require reproduction of "bits" of subject matter—true-false, multiple-choice, completion, and matching examinations—tend to negate learning when the solution of problems, achievement of adjustment, and the development of insights are objectives of school experiences.

Principles of Learning for Teaching

In terms of our understanding of the goals to be achieved, the nature of the learner, and of our concept of the process of learning, we may formulate certain hypotheses, necessarily tentative in nature, that offer suggestions for the development of democratic teaching procedures.[16]

1. Human beings strive for basic satisfactions; responses to environmental factors result in patterns of adjustment called behavior. We seek to continue or repeat experiences that we find emotionally satisfying and functionally useful in terms of goals that are important to us. These are the only types of learning activity that will be voluntarily engaged in. When the individual finds in an experience enough satisfaction to cause him to respond

[16] William Heard Kilpatrick and William Van Til, *Inter-Cultural Attitudes in the Making*. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1947, pp. 8–16.
H. H. Giles, *Teacher-Pupil Planning*. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1941, pp. 59–68.
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William H. Burton, *The Guidance of Learning Activities*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1944, pp. 5–141.

with appropriate changes in behavior, it may be called a significant response.

2. *The whole organism is involved in each significant response.* The mind, body, and emotions are not distinct aspects that may be trained separately. Whatever affects the individual to the point that a response is made impinges on the total person.

3. *We learn each response only as we accept it and live by it—in terms of intensity of living.* The degree to which we feel a particular experience and the extent to which we actually make it our own in terms of our interests, needs, and purposes conditions its value.

4. *If one is to learn anything he must actively relate that to be learned to some actual situation.* Only when verbal responses are translated into actual behavior will true learning occur. To the extent that our learning involves "doing," it becomes a fixed part of our pattern of adjustment.

5. *Learning can take place only when readiness exists for the particular type of response to be learned.* Development evolves through experience, purposing, and the analysis of needs and values of a mental scheme to which the new learning may be associated.

Summary

The purpose of teaching is to facilitate learning. All our teaching, therefore, is predicated on assumptions relative to how learning takes place. In the past certain misconceptions have existed with respect to the nature of learning as a process and in terms of the outcomes that result from certain learning experiences.

Our conception of learning is influenced by our interpretation of the outcomes sought, the understanding we hold of the characteristics of the learner, and the theory of learning we accept. Formal definitions of learning tend to stress the acquisition of certain responses without consideration of the manner or nature of the process. Functional definitions suggest that, in reality, learning is activity, behavior, and experience. Learning must be thought of as both a process and a product. As such it is increasingly being considered as a process of growth involving continuous integration with complex environmental factors.

Two types of theories of learning are: (1) association theories which hold to some specific and predictable relationship between the stimulus and the response; and (2) field theories which assume that the whole organism responds to a cluster or pattern of stimuli.

The first type of theories suggests that learning is much the same for all individuals under similar circumstances and is the result of the same stimuli. The latter group of theories holds that no two individuals learn in identical ways or respond similarly to the same source of stimulation since all differ in experiential background and perception of given situations.

Outcomes of learning may relate to the type of learning that is conceived. If we consider learning to be a unitary process, we will accept the fact that the whole organism reacts to each learning experience. Many different concomitant outcomes of learning—attitudes, feelings, desires, incentives for further effort, and the like—accompany learning experience. Some outcomes are thought of as automatic responses; others are in the nature of intellectual activities or emotional associations. Transfer of training is one outcome that is sought by formal learning experiences. This theory of outcome is still often employed as a rationalization for the perpetuation of nonfunctional learning experiences. Of the outcomes sought by school learning experiences, that of adjustment is the most important. Adjustment is defined in terms of the nature of the social ideals and purposes in relation to which the learning takes place.

Such factors as individual interests, maintenance of security in a satisfying environment, level of maturity, self-activity, motivation, and freedom to act operate to determine the amount and quality of learning that takes place. In addition, we may recognize other personal, social, and educational influences that tend to inhibit effective learning.

As a result of our understanding of the goals that are to be achieved, our conception of human growth, and the interpretation we accept of the nature of learning, it is possible to formulate certain hypotheses or principles that offer direction to learning in a democratic society.

Related Experiences

1. Observe teaching in nearby secondary schools and record evidence of misconceptions of learning such as those identified. See, for example, if you can find situations in which students are expected to study in order to acquire knowledge or in which learning is considered an additive process. Compare your findings.
2. Examine the outcomes of learning that you engaged in (while in high school or are now experiencing in college) for the purpose of analyzing the effect on the nature of learning of the outcomes desired.
3. Conduct a survey of adult opinion relative to the type of school

learning that has been most useful in later life. Ask such questions as:

a. What type of learning in school has been most helpful to you in later life work?

b. While in school what learning experiences did you engage in that have been of little value to you since?

4. Analyze your own habits of learning in an effort to appraise the influence of the determiners of learning described in this chapter.

5. Make an analysis to see if you have experienced in your own growth the types of influence that inhibit learning. Compare with your classmates the factors in teaching or conditions in school that you feel tended to deter learning for you or for your high school fellow-students.

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Chapter 9

CREATING A DESIRE TO LEARN

What is the meaning of motivation? . . . What is the relationship of motivation to learning? . . . What are the principal sources of motivation? . . . Why does motivation require increased emphasis for secondary school pupils? . . . What are some of the common mistakes made by teachers in motivating learning? . . . State three important factors in motivation. What distinctive characteristics does each factor possess? . . . What is the relationship between motivation and accomplishment? . . . What is the effect of the motivation of its members upon a group? . . . What is the teacher's function in intrinsic motivation? . . . Upon what basis does extrinsic motivation function best? . . . Contrast the two types of motivation. . . . Point out some of the limitations and weaknesses of extrinsic motivation. . . . What obligations in respect to motivation must a teacher assume? . . . Indentify principal forces motivating adolescent youth.

The degree to which an individual learns depends on the drives or motives that impel him to action. Only in rare instances may individuals who lack motivation learn effectively. Learning may be regarded as a process that is continually modifying the behavior patterns of the individual. The extent to which an individual affects changes in his behavior is usually related directly to the intensity of his desire to do so, although negative motivation, in some instances, may cause the learner to modify his behavior against his will. Absence of motivation, as in the case of meaningless drill, is associated with restricted achievement of desirable behavior changes. Motivation supplies a dynamic urge that makes an individual wish to take part in learning activity. Without some type of motive, learning experiences are likely to be artificial and uninteresting and hence ineffective.

Meaning and Source of Motivation

The teacher has the responsibility of (1) informing himself with respect to the meaning and importance of motivation; (2) understanding the kinds of motivation and the desirability of each in relation to its effect upon student personality; and (3) developing ability to make use of the more effective types of motivation.

Meaning of motivation. Motivation may be defined as the process of creating a desire to act. It involves the development of an incentive that will serve to stimulate interest in a desired action. There are two principal ways in which motivation may be employed to create a desire to participate in learning activity: (1) by helping an individual to perceive a direct relationship between a specific action and a meaningful goal; and (2) by helping an individual perceive a relationship, even though it is an indirect one, between a certain action and some artificial goal. In either case, motivation stimulates a desire for action that will lead to the accomplishment of a specific purpose. Motivation of a learner is difficult unless he has clearly in view an appropriate purpose. The attractiveness and appropriateness both of the purpose and the method of motivation employed for its accomplishment are directly related to success of learning.

Sources of motives. The basic source of motives is found in the urge to maintain integration. When an individual senses that for one reason or another he is achieving a state of imbalance, he seeks to correct this condition through appropriate action. For example, the adolescent boy who is looking forward to his first dinner-date with a girl realizes, perhaps for the first time, that his table manners, although they may be acceptable to other boys, may not be approved by a girl companion. This awareness promotes a state of imbalance that motivates him to improve his behavior. Any influence that impels one to act is a motive, whether it be an urge to obtain knowledge, acquire a skill, an impulse to share cherished possessions with others, or a tendency to collect material objects.

Certain motives or drives are innate. Others have their source in social relationships. All human beings seek to satisfy hunger, thirst, and sex drives and to achieve bodily comfort. Individuals also search for certain satisfactions that are an outgrowth of association with other human beings. They seek to gain acceptance as members of a group. They wish to be successful in activities that are approved by the group. They wish to enjoy new or adventurous activities with others, and they desire companionship. They may feel an urge to excel other members of the group, or they

may desire to dominate others and assert their own superiority. All activity depends upon a corresponding motive, the source of which may be either personal or social.

Teaching and Motivation

Learning depends on such factors as readiness, interest, motivation, and satisfaction. Motivation involves stimulating learning in one way or another. In school the teacher seeks to provide direct sources of motivation by means of formal learning situations. Although the curriculum, the school plant, and the composition of the student body are all factors in motivation, the quality of teaching contributes most to the success of motivation.

Motivation—a function of teaching. Since teaching exists for the purpose of encouraging learning, that is, for creating a desire to learn, motivation is one of its major functions. The dominant factor in motivation as it concerns the teacher springs from his interest in the creation of attitudes favorable to learning. The process of encouraging learning is itself motivation.

Teachers at all school levels find themselves concerned with the problem of imbuing children with a desire to learn. A study by Davis[1] dealt with the problems faced by 1075 public school teachers in Colorado and showed that of all the problems that teachers considered important, motivation was of the greatest magnitude.

The problem of motivation is particularly acute at the secondary school level. Children of the elementary school frequently perform tasks just to please the teacher. As youth reach adulthood, they establish personal goals that provide the source of self-motivation. In the interim between childhood and adulthood youth are no longer satisfied to engage in activity merely to please the teacher. Neither are they sufficiently mature, in many cases, to have developed any real capacity for completely independent action. Often, too, their personal goals seem to be in conflict with many purposes that are commonly set for young people by their parents and teachers. The teacher of secondary school youth is faced, therefore, with the task of stimulating action without continuing the paternalistic approach of the elementary school and in a way that encourages growth toward self-motivation and individual initiative.

Mistakes made by teachers in motivating learning. Much of the malpractice committed by teachers with respect to motivation

[1] Robert A. Davis and others, "The Teaching Problems of 1075 Public School Teachers," *Journal of Experimental Education*, 9:41–60, September, 1946.

is due either to their lack of understanding of the total effects of various aproaches to motivation or to their philosophy of education. It is natural to expect that a teacher who sincerely believes that education should be an authoritarian process will use such devices as ridicule, blame, and physical force to motivate learning. Often, beginning teachers make mistakes that are based on their own feeling of insecurity. When an inexperienced teacher who earnestly desires to be successful finds that he actually does not know what he should do to facilitate growth, it is natural for him to resort to procedures similar to those that were employed when he was a pupil in the secondary school. For a variety of reasons teachers make mistakes such as the following in attempting to motivate learning.[2]

1. Expecting students to learn assignments made by the teacher. Teachers often fall into the common error of expecting young people to learn willingly whatever is set before them by the teacher. In following this assumption the teacher expects that the student will "learn what he is told to learn because he is told to learn it." Actually, students seldom learn efficiently under such circumstances unless the material assigned by the teacher is closely related to the interest and recognized needs of members of the group. A student may, of course, if the consequences of non-learning or non-action are severe enough, go through the motions. He may actually memorize material and retain it long enough to pass the final examination, but under such circumstances it cannot be said that he has learned effectively or that he has been genuinely motivated to learn or to continue learning.

2. Offering rewards to induce students to learn. When students do not willingly perform tasks, it is a natural step to seek ways of persuading them to move toward teacher-determined goals. Such efforts have resulted in the offering of rewards, prizes, and other inducements to encourage the performance of assigned tasks. Most of the research related to motivation has been concerned with this type of activity.[3] It is not surprising, therefore, that many teachers are still devoting much time and energy to discovering new tricks and new bribes that will serve as incentives for action by students.

3. Use of punishment to force learning. When bribes do not work, teachers sometimes turn to the use of punishment as a means of motivation. Students who fail to complete assignments

[2] Glenn Myers Blair, "The Psychological Interpretation of Teaching," *Educational Administration and Supervision,* October, 1947, pp. 321–338.

[3] Lindley J. Stiles (Walter S. Monroe, S. M. Corey), "Methods of Teaching," *Encyclopedia of Educational Research,* Revised Edition, 1950, pp. 745–53.

made by the teacher may be detained after school, forced to do extra work, denied participation in school activities, or ridiculed in the presence of other students. Low marks and failures represent another type of punishment that is used frequently in secondary schools as a method of motivation.

4. Granting success to only a few. The practice of permitting only a few of the more able and most conforming students to realize success in secondary schools is one that serves to inhibit rather than encourage learning. The assumption basic to this practice seems to be that it will cause more pupils to work harder in order to achieve success. When only five high grades are given in a class of thirty pupils, it is assumed that the other twenty-five pupils will work all the harder in competition for the five A's. In reality, however, the opposite results. Students are more likely to take the attitude of "what's the use?"

One junior college freshman, for example, requested his advisor's permission to drop a course after the first class meeting. When asked why he desired to withdraw before really having time to get acquainted with the professor or with the nature of the course, the student replied, "Today the professor began the course by counting the number of students and then announced, 'Let's see, I am going to need to give about eight F's in this course—if you don't want to receive one of them, govern yourself accordingly.' " The student continued, "I'm no fool. I know those students in that group—no matter how hard I work I am going to get one of those eight F's. I have failed that course before starting it." Obviously, the professor announced the number of anticipated failures in the hope that it would serve to motivate learning; actually it had the opposite effect with this one student.

Factors in Motivation

From the research conducted on motivation it is difficult to draw generalizations concerning the effect of specific techniques and procedures. The fact that most of the investigations have been based on research procedure that involves equated-groups has served to obscure the effect of various types of motivation on the individual student. Results of such experiments generally have been based upon the average achievement of a number of students composing an experimental group. Most of the research related to motivation has been concerned with the degree to which various rewards cause the learner to perform tasks set for him by the

teacher.[4] Such studies have commonly evaluated the results of different motivational procedures in terms of the acquisition of subject matter in competitive situations. Under such circumstances it is not surprising that results have been attained that favor the value of individual prizes over group recognition.[5] Competition thrives on external rewards, on winning something that an opponent cannot attain. In a learning situation in which competition is the major source of motivation, rewards prove to be useful incentives.

Whenever co-operation, attitudes of mutual respect, and other phases of social competency are the goals of learning, individual rewards and the utilization of various types of punishment generally prove to be inferior as motivational devices. A beginning is being made in the direction of identifying certain factors that are significant in motivation when the goals of effective citizenship are the objective of teaching. Three such factors will be discussed.

Interest and needs. Whereas the adult readily recognizes values and selects activities appropriate to them, adolescent youth, although willing to engage in activity for which they see values, frequently are confused as to the relationship that exists between what they are urged to do and other activities that they believe to be important. The student who is required to study the English language may find it difficult to relate such activity to a personal goal. For example, a student may be interested in learning to be a mortician. He thinks, superficially enough, that learning to be a mortician involves only the study of anatomy, chemistry, psychology, and the specific skills needed in his chosen profession. At this stage in his development the ability to communicate ideas effectively may seem only remotely related to his goal since he looks forward to dealing with clients with whom communication is unnecessary, and indeed, impossible. He has not yet realized that vocational success in his profession, like others, demands a high degree of ability to persuade, to explain, and to satisfy through means of communication. He has not yet learned that the more successful morticians are those who are best able to console, to convey sympathy, to lend encouragement to the relatives of the deceased.

Several significant investigations have produced results indicating that whenever learning activities are related to the needs and

[4] An example of this type of research is found in E. L. Thorndike, "The Influence of Irrelevant Rewards," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 24:1–15, 1933.

[5] J. B. Maller, *Co-operation and Competition*, Contributions to Education, No. 384. New York: Teachers' College, Columbia University, 1929, 176 pp.

interests of some students and unrelated to those of others, those students who find their interests and needs involved will learn rapidly and the learning will have greater permanence.[6] Other studies have shown that retention is superior whenever interest and need lead the student to a continuing use of materials and skills learned. Recent studies designed to ascertain the effect of adapting curricular activities to the needs and interests of the learner have consistently revealed that superior learning takes place when experiences are meaningful and functional. Ward,[7] for example, found that learning was superior in experimental groups in which subject matter was employed functionally as a means to goals that students recognized as important to them. A related study was reported by Kinny and Bell [8] that showed that students acquired more knowledge, learned more easily, and gained a better understanding of historical perspective when permitted to use current materials as resources for learning in social studies and history.

Teachers face the responsibility of helping students discover the relationship between required tasks and anticipated needs. The student who has developed a realization of the significance of school learning in his relationship to the society of which he is a member will be motivated to engage heartily in his school work. Lacking this realization, he is likely to find school experiences dull and unmeaningful; he may even become so uninterested that he will withdraw from school in order to seek satisfaction of his needs and interests elsewhere.

Encouragement. We have known for a long time that when students wish to learn, they do so more rapidly when informed of

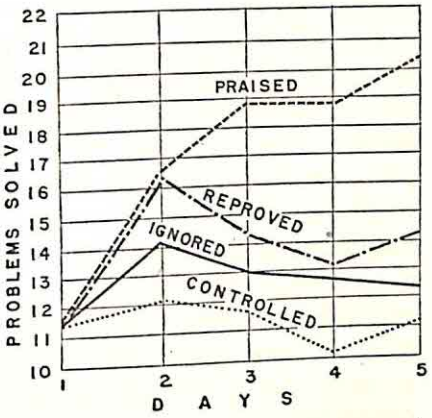
[6] For illustration of this point see:
Elsworth Collings, *An Experiment with the Project Curriculum*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1923, 346 pp.
Douglas Fryer, *Measurement of Interests in Relation to Human Adjustment*. New York: Holt, 1931, 488 pp.
J. W. Wrightstone, *Appraisal of Experimental High School Practices*. New York: Teachers' College, Columbia University, 1936, 184 pp.
[7] William E. Ward, "An Experimental Study of Two Methods of Teaching Chemistry in Senior High School," *Journal of Experimental Education*, 11:69–80, September, 1942.
Other illustrations of this point will be found in:
G. Derwood Baker and others, *New Methods versus Old in American Education*. New York: Progressive Education Association, 1941, 54 pp.
J. W. Wrightstone, *Appraisal of Experimental High School Practices*. New York: Teachers' College, Columbia University, 1936, 184 pp.
Dean Chamberlin and others, *Did They Succeed in College?* New York: Harper and Brothers, 1942, 291 pp.
[8] Lucian B. Kinney, and Reginald Bell, *Better Teaching Through the Use of Current Materials*. Stanford, California: Stanford University Press, 1947, 24 pp.

their progress.[9] This information is related to the effect of encouragement of learning as a motivational factor. Experienced teachers realize that students learn better when they receive commendation and praise for their efforts from the teacher, from other members of the group, and from their parents.

A study by Hurlock shows the effect of praise as a motivational force as compared to reproof and other procedures. After the first day, praise was distinctly superior to reproof as shown in Figure 5. Individual differences in temperament and the intensity with which objectives are sought affect the degree to which either praise or reproof motivate learning. Some students respond favorably to criticism when they are already highly motivated toward a personal goal. The football player, for example, who seeks to make the first team readily accepts reproof from his coach as a basis for ways to improve his performance. Some students, on the other hand, become so accustomed to censure by their teachers or parents that it has little favorable or unfavorable effect on learning. Sensitive individuals may work more poorly as a result of reproof. Likewise, the effect of encouragement cannot be settled as a favorable absolute motivational factor in all instances. In general, however, such positive encouragement as praise or commendation given either by the teacher or members of a student group is more dependable as a factor in motivation than such negative incentives as blame, reproof, ridicule, or punishment.[10] There is a growing awareness of the teacher's responsibility for creating a situation in which students receive encouragement to learn. Encouragement is especially important during the early stages of learning experience while students are in the process of identifying their goals and interests.

FIGURE 5

EFFECT OF FOUR TYPES OF MOTIVATIONAL FORCES



(By Hurlock, as recorded by Pressey and Davis.)

Success. Secondary schools have traditionally denied success to all but a few students. Only a small minority of high school stu-

[9] George Forlano, *School Learning with Various Methods of Practice and Rewards*. Contributions to Education, No. 688, New York: Teachers' College, Columbus University, 1936, 114 pp.

[10] Robert A. Davis, *Educational Psychology*. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1948, p. 223.

dents can receive the kind of rewards that the school uses as motivational devices. A relatively small percentage receive high marks, whereas a sizeable majority of students are made to feel that their work does not measure up to a level of general acceptability. A small percentage of students qualify for the honor roll and only a few receive commendable comments for their efforts. A casual glance at the progress report forms sent to parents will show that evaluations of students usually emphasize instances of failure rather than success.

Denial of success to students in secondary schools is frequently defended upon the grounds that inasmuch as students will face conditions in life that will result in failure, it is a good experience for them to become familiar with failure in school. The assumption is, apparently, that through failure in school they will develop a sufficiently strong character to endure the failures of life. Oddly enough, however, the few students who are successful in school give little evidence of having benefited from the purportedly valuable experiences of failure as a part of their training. A study of the pupil population of any secondary school will reveal that students who are scholastically successful are likely to be successful in everything they undertake. They make high grades, their participation in student activities is satisfying, and in some schools they are the only students eligible, by faculty fiat, to hold student offices. By the superficial reasoning that failure is an essential learning experience, it would appear that these successful students are being denied a fundamental part of their education.

Another factor which refutes the argument that failure is a desirable experience is found in the continued success of successful students. Students who enjoy successful experiences in secondary school generally achieve success in life or in further educational experiences. Many become leaders in business, industry, government, and the professions. In fact, evidence on every hand supports the adage that "nothing succeeds like success" so strongly that we are compelled to consider the importance of success as a factor in motivation.

It is often argued that every person should be successful in something. This point of view is probably correct when adjustment and wholesome personality and emotional happiness are the principal objectives. To motivate learning successfully it is particularly important that every individual attain a relative degree of success in educational activities that are related closely to the purposes and interests that are of personal interest to him.

Sears [11] reported the results of an investigation to determine the effect of success upon motivation. It was found that failure in an activity tended to produce a decrease in interest and effort, a sharp increase in such activities as daydreaming, a general reduction of social responsiveness and an increase in non-adjustive behavior. These results support the hypothesis that success leads to continued constructive activity and adjustment whereas failure contributes to lack of interest in learning and to personal disintegration.

Instrinsic Motivation—the Democratic Way

Perhaps the greatest stimulus to learning is a sense of the value of what is being learned. An awareness of how the learning fits into the scheme of attaining goals that have been accepted as being desirable helps to create a desire for accomplishing such learning. Democratic teaching aims at helping the learner to plan, execute, and evaluate learning experiences that are functionally related to purposes that are consciously accepted by the learner. The teacher cannot create motives for learning, but can arrange situations that help students develop interest and, therefore, self-motivation.

Interest is the primary source of motivation when self-direction and independence in thought and action are the goals of teaching. When interest is not present the teacher must either help pupils develop interest or resort to attempting to force them to learn by means of artificial inducements. The first of these two approaches is obviously the more desirable. When pupils pursue interests that are real and vital they develop habits and attitudes of work that qualify them for democratic participation. When the teacher follows the second approach to motivation, external compulsion, he actually may be contributing to the development of attitudes that are opposed to the ideals of democracy.

Characteristics of intrinsic motivation. Several characteristics distinguish intrinsic motivation from extrinsic motivation. By studying the extent to which such characteristics are found to exist one may determine the quality of the motivation provided.

1. Intrinsic motivation is always based upon the interest of the learner. Whenever a student deeply desires to learn, he does so as a result of a motive related to personal interest. It matters little how much the teacher is interested in getting the student to en-

[11] Ralph R. Sears, "Success and Failure," *Studies in Personality*, New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1942, pp. 235–38.

SMALLENBURG, HARRY, "Evaluating Pupil Progress," *Educational Leadership,* 2:290–293, April, 1945.

SMITH, E. R., AND TYLER, R. W., *Appraising and Recording Student Progress.* New York: Harper and Brothers, 1942, 550 pp.

WRINKLE, WILLIAM L., "Reporting Pupil Progress," *Educational Leadership,* 2:293–295, April, 1945.

Part 3

DEVELOPING DEMOCRATIC METHODS OF TEACHING

gage in a particular activity unless the student himself desires to participate. Unless he is interested, little or no action will result. If he is interested either because of the activity itself or because of some direct, natural outcome of the activity, his motivation may be characterized as intrinsic.

2. *Intrinsic motivation grows from a recognized need or goal.* When the learner seeks to achieve a goal that to him is meaningful and important, he will possess a motive that receives its impetus from an inner drive. By sharing in the process of identifying goals, the learner is granted an opportunity to select those related to needs that he considers worth working toward. Such a process helps build an attitude favorable to learning.

3. *Intrinsic motivation is present in a learning situation in which the learner finds satisfaction in the activity of learning itself.* When students are motivated intrinsically they need no external forces to compel them to act, nor do they need rewards that are unrelated to the learning activity. The satisfaction from learning, when individuals are motivated by their own interests and consciously accepted goals, is found in the doing itself as well as in the results that are achieved.

4. *Intrinsic motivation leads to continuing motivation.* When individuals find satisfaction in an activity, they tend to want to continue or to repeat that activity. The degree to which an experience is the product of an inner drive (self-motivation) will determine the extent to which it promotes pursuit of the same experience or related experiences.

5. *Intrinsic motivation contributes to the development of independence.* A motive that grows from within, that is the product of a personal drive toward action, that receives its direction from consciously accepted goals and interests of the learner, will contribute to the growth of independence and self-direction.

6. *Intrinsic motivation is a product of many factors.* No single force or drive is the basis for intrinsic motivation. Each individual seeks integration in numerous and complicated ways as a result of various complex factors that tend to cause imbalance. As a result of all of these factors, he is led to engage in specific activities as a means of solving personal problems. The solution of one problem leads inevitably to the recognition of the need to solve other problems. Thus the learner is motivated to continue his effort as a result of inner concern for favorable adjustment of the many factors that impinge upon his interests.

7. *Intrinsic motivation contributes to the total adjustment of*

the individual. Whereas motivation that is supplied externally may aim at the establishment of particular kinds of behavior at the possible expense of maladjustment in other phases of personality development, intrinsic motivation generally permits the individual to achieve a fairly normal balance of behavior.

Evaluating the outcome of motivation. The quality of motivation can be evaluated only in terms of the outcomes it produces. When the projected outcomes are end-products set up by some selective agency outside the learning process and are related mainly to the acquisition of a certain amount of knowledge or skill, the motivation necessary to compel students to attain remote or detached objectives of this sort often must, of necessity, be extrinsic. Analysis of the immediate or temporary outcomes that a particular kind of motivation produces may not provide a sufficient basis for judging its worth.

When a high school student memorizes a passage from a Shakespearian sonnet in order to obtain a passing mark in a class in English literature, teachers often conclude that the external motivation must have been good inasmuch as it produced results. But the student may, at the same time, develop a dislike for poetry as well as an antipathy for the teacher and the course as a result of the experience. His resulting attitude toward poetry may cause him to refrain from reading it except when compelled to do so. It may also develop in the student an attitude toward the teacher that tends to undermine the effectiveness of anything else that the teacher may attempt to help the student learn. Often, when such undesirable outcomes appear, they outweigh or cancel the desirable objectives achieved. When the pupil is forced to demonstrate his ability to memorize material or to acquire a skill in which he feels little or no interest, the value of the total product of the method of motivation used must be recognized to be bad rather than good.

The outcomes achieved as the result of the quality of motivation employed are governed by the following principles:

1. The outcome is directly dependent upon the intensity of the motivation. When an individual possesses a strong desire or drive to action, he has a greater chance of achieving outcomes that are satisfying and lasting. Often in school situations the student does not care whether he learns or not. He may attempt to avoid learning or may try only to "get by" sufficiently well to avoid the unpleasant consequences of not learning. In such cases, the outcomes of learning cannot be expected to be satisfactory. When the

individual has a strong desire to learn, that is, when he is intensely motivated, he will be likely to achieve an outcome of exceptional value.

2. The character of motivation contributes directly to the behavior patterns that are established. The quality of motivation accepted by teachers is determined mainly by the ideals of behavior toward which the teaching is directed. Human beings learn by doing; desire for action is produced by the motivation that precedes it; and the establishment of habits of behavior results in due course from the total process, but the resulting habits may owe their origin principally to the quality of the motivation that initiated their development.

3. Self-directed motivation develops individuality. Only through practice do students learn the habits and skills of self-direction. When they are continually told, persuaded, forced, or bribed into action, students have little opportunity to develop capacity for self-direction. On the other hand, when students have the desire created in them to pursue action that grows naturally out of drives related to their own objectives, they also have opportunity to improve their capacity for self-direction.

Effect of group on motivation. Most of the scientific studies that have been concerned with motivation have attempted to determine the effect of various external stimuli upon individual action. Such studies, for example, have sought to determine the amount of pressure or force required to compel the student to exert a given amount of effort or to achieve certain goals of a definite, although usually temporary, type. Recently educators have become aware that the degree of wholesomeness of the adjustment of an individual within his group has a direct relationship to the amount of effective learning he can accomplish. We recognize that the quality of rapport that exists in a given group may influence action more than almost any other single factor. When the individual is happily adjusted in a group, when he enjoys working with others, and when he feels that he is an important member of his group, his desire to contribute to the activities of that group is intensified. Some of the generalizations relative to the effect of the group upon motivations illustrate the importance of further experimentation relative to this problem.

1. Common goals stimulate individual effort. Whenever an individual has an opportunity to participate in the process of choosing the goals toward which a group is striving, he feels that he is working with others to achieve commonly accepted and

commonly desired goals. Whenever he recognizes that the achievement of group goals will benefit the entire group as well as individuals within the group, the intensity of the force of motivation is increased. An illustration of this point is found in the strength of the motivation shared by individuals who are members of athletic teams striving to win the championship for their school. They strive to do their best because they know that success in the game will contribute not only to their own happiness but to that of the group as well.

2. *Congenial relationships improve the quality of motivation.* If the individual is a member of a group in which he finds pleasure in associating with other members and if he respects his companions and feels that they in turn respect him, he will develop a stronger desire for action in behalf of goals that are important both to him and to the group to which he belongs. Some students work hard in high school largely because they enjoy their associations with other students.

3. *Status in a group is a source of motivation.* The desire to excel in the activities accepted by the group and the urge to achieve respectable status and belongingness within a group are basic sources of intrinsic motivation. Adolescents, possibly more than any other age group, derive motivation from the urge to maintain status within groups in which there is constant competition to demonstrate superiority. When students conform and respond to the attitudes, traditions, and behaviors of other adolescents, although often opposed to the wishes of their parents and teachers, they are responding to intrinsic drives that, for a majority of their number, are far stronger than the external motivating forces sponsored in their behalf by adult society.

4. *Group goals may serve as a stronger motivating force than individual goals.*[12] Although each individual possesses certain basic urges that may be characterized as individual in nature, he is often even more interested in achieving goals that are popularly sought by the group in which he seeks status than in reaching his individual goals. Although it is frequently asserted that the urge for self-preservation is the primary source of all motivation, as individuals grow into maturity many of them repeatedly demon-

[12] Several research experiments involving motivation in school situations have produced results contrary to this statement. These studies have been concerned mainly, however, with the effect of given individual rewards as motivational devices in competitive situations. The willingness of the soldier to die for his country, the sacrifices that men make to preserve their families, the eagerness with which high school athletes place the good of their team ahead of personal glory—all represent behavior contrary to findings produced by such experimental research.

Chapter 11

DEMOCRATIZING TEACHING WITH GUIDANCE TECHNIQUES

How does the point of view that is emerging in the organized guidance "movement" relate to teaching? . . . What contributions have been made by guidance to teaching? . . . How does traditional teaching differ from guidance? . . . What distinction do many teachers fail to make between "guidance" and "direction"? . . . What issues are fundamental to the assumption that teaching can adopt a guidance approach? . . . Show how guidance and teaching are dependent upon the same principles. . . . What criteria for teaching are contributed by the theory and practice of guidance? . . . What is the nature of teaching when it is coordinated with guidance? . . . What specialized functions of teaching and guidance must be continued even though teaching itself becomes a process of guidance? . . . How do the teacher-counselor and the guidance specialist develop teaching from a guidance approach?

Teaching is guidance to the extent that it functions as a process of helping the learner make adjustments. In a very real sense, however, guidance may be thought of as the democratic approach to teaching. Guidance as a process has contributed much to our understanding of democratic methods of furthering growth and adjustment. The key to the interrelatedness between instruction and guidance is found in their common purpose. The aim of each is to help the individual to acquire capacity for self-direction, and each seeks to help the individual maintain satisfactory adjustment.

The assumption that the teacher is mainly a transmitter of information ignores the psychological fact that learning can take place only when the learner actively seeks to solve recognized problems. To further the learning process, the teacher may do many things, such as establishing an appropriate setting, organizing learning experiences, working with a group or an individual

strate their willingness to submerge this urge in favor of efforts to preserve the security of the interests and welfare of their groups.

Intrinsic motivation and the teacher. Superficial thinking sometimes leads to the conclusion that teachers are unnecessary in situations in which students are providing self-direction and self-motivation in learning activities. It is argued by those who hold such beliefs that teaching exists only for the purpose of providing direction to the learner, that it is the teacher's function to "make" students learn. Such arguments are unfounded when applied to democratic teaching. When the goals of teaching are independent action, including self-motivation and self-evaluation, teaching assumes new and different responsibilities. Some functions of teaching with respect to intrinsic motivation may be expressed as follows:

1. Creating a setting for intrinsic motivation. The teacher assumes the major responsibility for setting up a learning situation that stimulates self-motivation by permitting students to engage in forms of action that are directly related to their personal goals. Conditions that contribute to successful motivation include, in addition to the comfortable and pleasant physical surroundings and classroom routines that are meaningful to students, an emotional atmosphere that is characterized by encouragement, social approval, and genuinely friendly relationships between the teacher and students and among students themselves.

2. Establishing group rapport.[13] Intrinsic motivation is furthered by establishing conditions that are satisfying to all members of the group and that are based on attitudes of mutual respect, shared responsibility, and co-operation. The teacher may contribute to establishing effective rapport by studying the personal needs and problems of each student in order that he may know how to help them plan experiences that are significantly related to their individual needs.

In addition, the teacher should undertake to analyze the general composition of each group in order to determine its character. When individuals live together in a group, the total effect of the group becomes evident in the form of group personality. The group is a product of individuals within it, but the total composition of its characteristics constitutes something more than the sum of the personalities of which it is composed. The manner in which individuals interact with each other within a group significantly affects intrinsic motivation.

3. Maintaining wholesome teacher-student relationships. Ef-

[13] See Chapter 12

forts to motivate are more effective in situations in which the emotional climate maintained by the teacher is healthy and friendly. When students *like* the teacher there is strong probability that they will also *like* to learn. Teachers who are interested in the pupils they teach, who are sincerely concerned with the problems of young people, who recognize individual interests, and who respect their students contribute directly to the motivation of learning.

4. Establishing an atmosphere in which there is social approval of all efforts to learn—unsuccessful as well as successful. Students who fear that their efforts may not be acceptable to the teacher or to the group will hesitate to try. The teacher can do much to help individuals gain confidence to make effort, even though attempts result in mistakes. Perhaps the most important step in encouraging experimental effort to learn is the acceptance by the teacher of whatever the student may do, even though it may be wrong.

5. Guiding and identifying interests. It has been shown that interest is a primary basis for intrinsic motivation. Frequently, however, students are confused concerning their real interests. They may seek to satisfy unclarified interests through incompatible action. During early adolescence, for example, young people are interested in being accepted by their fellow students. Without clearly recognizing the character of the interest that gives impetus to their drive, they may exhibit overt behavior characteristics, such as boisterousness, rudeness, or domination of others, that actually prevent them from achieving the satisfaction of their interest—that of being accepted by others. The teacher has the responsibility and the opportunity of helping young people to study themselves in order to recognize their true interests.

6. Helping students to analyze the relationship between aptitude that comes with maturity and their desired goals. Effectiveness of motivation is decreased when students attempt to achieve goals that are beyond their ability. It is important that individual students be helped to appraise the appropriateness of their goals in terms of their maturity status and with respect to their current aptitude and achievement level. On some occasions students will need to "try for themselves" in order to discover whether they possess the ability to achieve given objectives. Discovery of inability to be successful can be turned into an incentive for a modified or related goal provided the teacher has been active in the process of providing guidance relative to the student's course of action. For example, one student who found that he would be unable to become a doctor had little difficulty redirecting his efforts

toward pharmacy when he became convinced that such an adjustment was necessary.

7. Helping formulate group purposes. Inasmuch as group goals are usually stronger motivating forces than individual goals, the teacher can increase intrinsic motivation by helping groups of adolescents to identify purposes that are common to the needs of their group.

8. Raising the level of performance by identifying related objectives. New goals and purposes grow from the old. When students seriously endeavor to achieve goals that they consider important, they usually discover many additional new objectives that are meaningfully related to their earlier interests. The teacher can continuously help to raise the level of individual and group performance by helping the learner to identify these related purposes.

9. Making provision for all to be successful. Failures in school are, for the most part, teacher-made. When arbitrary, uniform standards for marks, promotions, and commendations are maintained, failure is a common product of such procedure. If all students are to be provided with successful experiences in school, it is imperative that the teacher organize instruction toward this end. To accomplish the best results, emphasis on giving attention to uniform standards should be supplanted by emphasis on attention to individual growth patterns.

10. Joining with the learner as a partner and assistant in his learning activity. Adolescent youth can be motivated to self-direction in learning by a teacher who respects their right to plan and carry out learning activities that the students have a voice in choosing, with frequent opportunities to express their own preferences and opinions.

11. Helping to evaluate achievement toward commonly accepted goals. Knowledge of progress toward achievement increases intrinsic motivation. When groups are helped to evaluate the quality of their achievement in their progress toward group goals, each member also becomes aware of his own individual gain and is thus encouraged to undertake further action both in behalf of his own improvement and in that of the group whose interests he identifies with his own.

Extrinsic Motivation—the Autocratic Way

Extrinsic motivation is more closely associated with authoritarian techniques of teaching than with democratic procedures

inasmuch as it implies a process of compelling the learner to engage in action regardless of his personal interest in what is being done. The methods characterized as teacher-centric in Chapter 4 frequently rely heavily on various extrinsic motivating forces to compel the student to engage in learning experiences that the teacher considers important for traditional reasons.

It will be helpful to the prospective teacher to learn to identify practices that lead to or are associated with extrinsic motivation. Few teachers are successful in always avoiding the use of extrinsic motivating devices. Many teachers are compelled to employ such procedures because of the circumstances which exist within a school system. For example, if the school system uses grades, honor rolls, promotions, detention halls, punishments, or expulsion as its principal means of forcing students to exhibit arbitrarily established behavior patterns, an individual teacher may find it impossible or at least difficult to alter, within a single classroom, the kind of motivation employed. Many teachers, when they find themselves in such situations, do not know how to take steps to change from dependence upon extrinsic to use of intrinsic motivation. As a first step in the direction of improvement, one should be able to evaluate the quality of the motivation that gives impetus to action in any learning situation.

Theory of extrinsic motivation. Extrinsic motivation is based on the theory that all human beings should be made to conform to the rules of society. It presupposes that youth is incapable of providing self-direction toward goals that are acceptable to adult society. It further assumes that much of school learning is naturally difficult and distasteful, and, therefore, young people either must be driven to the acquisition of such knowledge or attracted to it by the promise of rewards outside the learning itself. Extrinsic motivation is associated with the theory that it is the duty of the teachers to decide what is "good" for students and then devise ways of tricking or forcing them to participate in predetermined experiences that will contribute to the accomplishment of the purposes they approve. Underlying this type of motivation is the belief that the end justifies the means. It is assumed that if students learn their lessons it makes little difference what extremes in rewards and punishments are used to bring about this result.

Intrinsic motivation leads to growth in understanding as a means to the development of attitudes, appreciations, and patterns of thinking and behaving. Extrinsic motivation tends to emphasize almost exclusively the memorization of facts as an end in themselves. Extrinsic motivation permits little concern for the

total adjustment of the student since its application involves concentration upon isolated individual responses to external stimuli that are generally directed toward achievement of unrelated or indifferently associated goals in a subject matter course.

Types of extrinsic motivation. Extrinsic motivation may be classified into two types: (1) the positive kind that impels to action and (2) the negative that inhibits action.

1. Positive extrinsic motivation. The term commonly used to describe positive motivation is "rewards." Traditionally both parents and teachers have tended to evoke acceptable or desired responses from children by offering them rewards. Although a reward may be thought of as a natural benefit growing out of the student's behavior, the term as used here refers to artificial rewards that are substituted for other more direct satisfactions that are generally inherent in self-motivated activities. Kinds of rewards include objects which can be displayed, such as gold stars, merit badges, high marks, athletic letters, pennants, banners, medals, and monetary prizes; honors—inclusion in honor rolls, dean's lists, honorary membership, appointment to honorary positions, and public recognition; relief from work—being excused from examinations, term papers, or drill for having achieved a certain degree of excellence; and special privileges as the result of superior achievement, outstanding citizenship, or leadership qualities that make a student eligible to serve as a delegate to a state meeting or to represent the school at a special function, or to deviate from the customary pattern of required activities.

In order that they may serve as means of motivation rewards must be (1) immediate, (2) attainable by a sizeable portion of the student body, (3) self-repeating, (4) satisfying, and (5) material. Rewards that contribute to motivation effectively must be within the reach of nearly all students and must be considered worth striving for by those who compete for them. Group rewards are generally effective as external motivation since most students will strive vigorously to gain a reward for their group, team, class, or school.

2. Negative extrinsic motivation. Opposed to rewards as a means of extrinsic motivation are teacher-controlled devices designed to prevent undesirable action. They consist of punishments of all forms including corporal punishment, denial of privileges, isolation, extra work to be done, sarcasm, nagging, reducing marks for misbehavior, detention after school, use of demerits, suspension, and expulsion. Other forms of punishment that are fre-

quently employed may be only a disapproving glance or the recording in the presence of classmates of a failure to respond. Censuring students for failure also comes under the heading of negative extrinsic motivation.

Dangers in the use of extrinsic motivation. The greatest danger inherent in the use of extrinsic motivation lies in its unwholesome effect upon the personality of the student. Rewards can never be equally attainable by all; therefore, some students, because of disappointment or discouragement, lose the will to try. Students who can be successful may develop undue dependence upon external rewards. Superior students may fail to exert their best efforts inasmuch as they feel sure that they will receive the reward anyway. Later, in out-of-school situations, when rewards are not offered, individuals who have learned to expect rewards will be less likely to engage in activity that is related to community welfare. A real danger in offering rewards lies in the probability that natural intrinsic interests will be supplanted by interests associated with artificial external rewards. As youth grow older, this condition frequently becomes more acute.

Either lack of reward or use of punishment may result in the development of hatred, resentment, frustration, withdrawal, negativism, or defensiveness. It may result in defiance, aggressive behavior, insubordination, retaliation, dishonesty, and possibly personality disintegration.

Not all students of secondary school age will be harmed by the use of external motivating devices, but the number who are is sufficiently great to raise the question as to whether external motivation ever should have a place in education. Teaching concerned with the promotion of integrated personalities and the development of self-direction, independence, co-operation, and other qualities of democratic living may defeat its own purpose if it relies on rewards and punishments as means of motivation.

Forces That Motivate Youth

Motivation in teaching is always easier when it is based on the natural urges and drives of the student. Not all of the forces described here will affect the learning of every student nor will an individual student be influenced by all of the factors at a given time. Motivation will be enhanced if the teacher is aware of the importance of such forces as desire for security within each natural social grouping of young people; urge for freedom from domina-

tion by adults; sex drives; interest in group recreation; desire for new experiences; creative impulses; and vocational choices.

Desire for security within natural social groups. The urge to establish friendly, secure relationships with members of their own social and age groups is a strong force in motivating the behavior and activities of learning of adolescent boys and girls. Alert teachers can utilize this force to promote learning through group activities. Opportunity to work with others often in itself furnishes sufficient drive to keep students striving to improve.

Urge for freedom from adult direction. The greatest incentive for self-direction springs from the urge of adolescents to establish themselves as adults. As young people strive to shake off the controls of adults—both parents and teachers—they readily accept opportunities to demonstrate their maturity. They gain confidence in making decisions, in planning action relative to *their* goals, and in evaluating their progress. When learning activities are planned in such manner that students are permitted and encouraged to direct their own learning, the motivation is closely related to this basic drive experienced by all youth of secondary school age.

Sex drives. The biological urge to make adjustments and to explore relationships with members of the opposite sex serves to motivate both growth and adjustment of adolescent youth. Young people, without understanding completely the forces that cause them to do so, normally search for satisfying social contacts with members of the opposite sex. Motive for action toward achieving the goals prescribed by the traditional school is often found in the drive young people experience to "show up well" in the presence of their companions. This force is a strong factor in promoting self-direction and improving conduct in general and etiquette in particular. Sex drives are also basic to the desire of high school youth to participate in such activities as dramatics, school parties, and school clubs.

Interest in group recreation. Group recreation among boys and girls assumes new importance as youth seek enjoyment through mixed parties, dancing, hikes, and such minor social activities as drinking cokes at the corner drug store or car riding. The urge to surpass other individuals in competitive activities tends to be tempered during adolescence with a concern for the welfare of others. The high school senior who worked hard to win a class office only to accept it in tears because her winning had meant the defeat of her best friend illustrates the development of an attitude

or sentiment that often increases in strength during the later years of senior high school. Normally the adolescent individual experiences a steadily increasing desire to share in enjoyable group activities.

Desire for new experiences. The exploratory urges experienced by students during adolescence, the desire to try out their abilities and to discover personal potentialities, provides adolescent youth with a strong desire for new experiences. Both boys and girls readily accept opportunities to do something they have not attempted before. They exhibit eagerness in their acceptance and enjoyment of new songs, games, places to go, books, movies, radio programs, as well as in new vocabulary attainments and different clothes and styles of dress. Young people often gain special satisfaction in passing from one new fad to another. New experiences that prove satisfying usually will be exploited extensively before being laid aside in order to take up additional opportunities to explore.

Vocational preparation. One of the strongest motivations for learning during the secondary school years is that of vocational preparation. As young people begin to think of becoming adults they increasingly associate their learning with vocational usefulness. The teacher who fails to exploit the vocational implications of a subject-matter field is failing to utilize one of the most powerful motives for stimulating learning. Students are motivated faster and with more lasting effect when they associate learning activities with preparation for vocational efficiency.[14] The student who sees the study of mathematics as preparation for a phase of engineering will be more highly motivated than the one who is told to learn the subject because it is "required" or that there is possibility that it may be needed in the future.

Forces such as those described can be used to increase motivation toward desired educational objectives. It is important to be aware of the influence that factors such as these have upon individual students at given times. By using the impetus gained from these natural drives teachers will be better able to work co-operatively with youth in planning contributive activities that are linked with their own particular natural interests, recognized needs, and personal and group goals. Such motivation will be mainly intrinsic inasmuch as it is based on the urges and drives that naturally motivate adolescents.

[14] A. B. Crawford, *Incentives to Study: A Survey of Student Opinion*, Yale University Press, 1929, 194 pp.

to identify purposes, and relating experiences to background and helping to appraise results. Teaching is a process of *guiding* the learning of others.

Another factor that must be borne in mind when considering the characteristics of the teaching process is the degree to which teaching is permitted to share the act of learning. When learning experiences are developed in a climate of freedom that permits expansion of rational inquiry in relationship to identified problems, the teacher joins with other members of the group in searching for useful information, novel hypotheses, and varied relationships. In so doing, the teacher makes his greatest contribution by helping members of the group to organize for effective study and by guiding the evaluation of the results.

In such a learning situation the teacher shares in the learning experience and provides assistance and encouragement in helping the group achieve an objective. In most situations the teacher will be far in advance of the class group in his understanding of the problems studied. In many instances, the teacher will find it necessary to solve for himself, perhaps not only once but several times, the issues that challenge the secondary school student. However, this need not prevent the teacher from organizing learning experiences in such manner that each new group of students may experience the joy of self-discovery in a situation that stresses co-operative effort. To the degree that the student group is encouraged to share in planning, executing, and appraising the learning experience, teaching enhances the process and function of guidance by helping to make self-guidance, mutual adjustments, and group control functional parts of a co-ordinate program of learning and guidance.

Teaching and Guidance

Educators are more and more frequently finding it helpful to think of teaching as a process of guiding learning.[1] The older concept of *directing* learning is rapidly giving way to the point of view that guidance more accurately describes the function of teaching.

The major obstacle in defining teaching as a process of guidance is the fact that since the turn of the century, guidance has become a recognized "movement" in education and industry, with its own aims and purposes, vocabulary, techniques, and trained

[1] Parts I and II of William H. Burton, *The Guidance of Learning Activities* (New York: D. Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1944), provides amplification of this point of view.

personnel. As employed, guidance is often highly specialized, requiring extensive technical professional preparation. When viewed in perspective, however, one discovers that guidance, even as a field of technical specialization, is becoming more and more concerned with relating itself to the teaching process in the secondary schools. Leaders in the guidance field recognize that guidance has much to offer to the theory of teaching.

Growth of the guidance concept. During the past forty years an expanding concept of guidance has found expression in a service to individual students in secondary schools and colleges. Originally guidance was thought of as being concerned with helping youth select appropriate occupations. With the development of a complex industrialized society placing more and more emphasis on specialization, the necessity for helping young people choose appropriate careers became urgent. The importance of providing vocational guidance was seen not only in helping the individual choose a line of work to which he was well suited but also in providing industry and the professions with a steady supply of trained personnel. The latter factor has been firmly imbedded in our social policy since as a nation we can not afford to have some professions and vocations going begging for new members while others continue to be overcrowded.

As industry became more complicated and as the field called vocational guidance developed, the need to guide young people into appropriate types of preparation for future vocations and professions was recognized. Since secondary schools and institutions of higher learning had increasingly adopted what was called the "elective" system in the later years of their curricula, it was both possible and necessary to help students choose the subjects to be elected in terms of anticipated careers. Thus, what has been called "educational" guidance gained popularity.

Although the relationship between what has been called vocational and educational guidance seems obvious, it has not always been recognized in planning guidance programs in secondary schools. In many secondary schools it is not unusual, even today, to find that programs of vocational guidance and educational guidance are promoted in isolation. For example, it is common to find that vocational guidance is developed under the stimulation of instructors of vocational education or business education, whereas educational guidance is typically provided under the direction of the dean of boys and the dean of girls. Those who have been concerned with vocational guidance have usually sought special training in graduate schools of education or psychology,

Summary

Motivation may be defined as the process of creating a desire to act. It may result either from helping an individual to discover a direct relationship between some specific activity and a meaningful goal or by generating a desire to achieve an artificial or substitute goal which carries as a condition for success the accomplishment of some other arbitrarily designated requirement. The source of motivation for human beings is found in the urge to maintain integration within an environment. Incentives to action may be urges to acquire knowledge or skill, impulses to share, to excel, to demonstrate, or tendencies to collect objects. Certain drives are innate, whereas others grow out of social satisfactions and similar goals that develop within human relationships.

Motivation is a function of teaching. As such, it represents one of the major problems faced by teachers. Traditionally, many teachers have been inclined to expect students to learn prescribed tasks successfully when such incentives as offering rewards to stimulate learning, using punishment to force learning, and granting success to only a few students have been employed. Interests and needs, encouragement, and achievement of success are coming to be recognized as important factors in motivating learning.

Intrinsic motivation provides a democratic basis for encouraging learning. This type of motivation is directly related to the learning situation of which it is itself an integral part and is calculated to arouse within each intensive and meaningful effort for individual self-direction. Such motivation grows from individual interests, recognized needs and goals, and from satisfactions derived from the learning activity itself. Intrinsic motivation stimulates continuity of learning effort and the development of self-assurance and well balanced personal adjustment. Its use provides opportunity for directly integrating the learning activities undertaken with the outcomes to be achieved. Teaching that makes use of intrinsic motivation incorporates such processes as discovering the interests of the learner, developing group rapport, identifying and clarifying needs and goals, and establishing within the group a uniform attitude toward qualities that are essential for high standards of social acceptance, and helping the learner to evaluate his own achievement.

The autocratic approach to motivation—extrinsic motivation—is founded on the premise that all human beings must adhere to those traditional rules accepted by a majority of the social group and that they must be enticed into learning experiences, many of

which are by nature disagreeable to the learner. Extrinsic motivation may be either positive or negative. Both approaches have always been extensively employed. Positive extrinsic motivation has been found to be more acceptable than negative motivation of the same sort, but in order for it to be constructively effective it should be correlated closely with the goal of learning that is being sought and should have direct appeal for every member of the group. Group rewards are generally more effective than individual prizes in stimulating growth toward desirable citizenship characteristics. The danger in relying on extrinsic motivation, either positive or negative, results both from its frequently unwholesome effect upon individual personalities and from its long-range illogical social effect upon individual and group activities. Students who have been conditioned to work mainly either for prizes or to avoid punishment are likely to make little progress toward developing capacity for self-direction and self-motivation.

The constructive natural forces that motivate adolescents should be utilized as fully as possible. Among the more important of these forces are desire for security within a group, the urge for freedom from adult direction, sex drives, interest in group recreation, desire for new experiences, and interest in vocational preparation.

Related Experiences

1. In co-operation with other members of your group, survey the class of which you are a member to ascertain the extent to which both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation function in stimulating learning.
2. Arrange for conferences with teachers in secondary schools to discover (1) what use they make of intrinsic motivation and (2) what factors in school procedures seem to make it necessary to employ extrinsic motivation.
3. Observe secondary school students in learning activities to determine the effectiveness of the type of motivation that is being employed.
4. Formulate a list of principles that will assist students of secondary education to evaluate the effectiveness in respect to democratic methods of teaching of various types of motivation that may be used to create desire to learn.
5. Arrange to see the following film:

Lessons in Living (20 minutes: sound). Grandon Films, Inc., 1600 Broadway, New York 19, N. Y. A film showing how a school project revitalized Lantzville, British Columbia, a community having a cross-section of nationalities and industrial groups. Depicts the story of how

a dispirited school reconstructed its approach to education through cooperative assistance from the community.

Suggested Readings

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Chapter 10

APPRAISING LEARNING AND GROWTH

What is evaluation? . . . What is its purpose? . . . Contrast formal and informal evaluation. . . . What are the principal factors in measurement? . . . Compare measurement and evaluation. . . . Name and characterize four agents of evaluation. . . . What is the relationship of observation to evaluation? . . . Mention several forms of observation whose results help in the evaluation process. . . . Describe three standards of evaluation. . . . Why should appraisal be related to social competency? . . . What principle of evaluation is the most important?

When, during the initial stage of teaching, the goals of learning are being established, evaluation plays a major role. Whenever choices are made, evaluation occurs. While planning is taking place and throughout participating activities, evaluation provides direction. At the conclusion of a given learning experience evaluation is employed to determine the effectiveness of the experience and to help determine successive experiences.

Whatever an individual does is subject to evaluation both by himself and others. Each individual judges the worth of his experiences in terms of the personal satisfaction he receives, the degree to which the experience contributes to his goals, and the probable effect of his acts upon others. Likewise, an individual's activities and attitudes are often judged by others. Such evaluation is usually based on the degree to which an observed or measured action is directed toward achievement of goals that are approved by those making the evaluation.

In school situations, emphasis in evaluation generally consists of judgments by others of actions, accomplishments, and attitudes. In such instances the "others" are usually teachers. Although teachers often assume that they perform the entire function of evaluation, the individual student, likewise, evaluates his school

experiences in terms of the satisfactions that he and his fellow students consider important.

Meaning, Purpose, and Types of Evaluation

Our concept of evaluation, the purpose for which we use it, and the evaluative techniques that we employ influence the quality of our teaching. Experienced teachers have long recognized that outcomes that are known to be commonly emphasized in evaluation define largely what will be taught. This is the basis for the expression, "We teach what we test; we test what we teach." It is impractical to attempt to teach for democratic outcomes, for example, while employing means of evaluation that are characteristically autocratic. One cannot teach to promote appreciation while using evaluative devices that stress the memorization of facts. The concept of evaluation that we accept determines the type of evaluation that will be used.

Meaning of evaluation. The term *evaluation* is too often used to mean measurement only, this being a concept that has come to be strongly emphasized as a result of the development of the scientific movement in education. This movement developed along with modern techniques of testing. Educators have long called attention to the need for frequent objective measurement of the outcomes of learning.

What is called evaluation in school is actually little more than measurement of the amount of knowledges acquired, of skills perfected, or of activities completed. The *value* of these acquisitions and activities is seldom ascertained in relation to objectives associated with the growth needs of individual students.

The process of ascertaining the *value* of something that exists is generally accepted as an adequate definition of evaluation. In its true sense evaluation means *appraisal of worth.* It means judging the value that is derived from, or is inherent in, an object, a situation, or an experience. Evaluation is properly concerned with appraising the worth of every learning experience in which youth is engaged. Some who attempt to separate evaluation from measurement regard evaluation as a process having as its principal purpose recognition of the *value* of the gains of learning, and they seem to ignore the fact that some sort of measurement—subjective, or objective—must take place before evaluation can be made. Evaluation involves not only measurement of intellectual capacity and actual learning gains but also the gauging of accomplishment in terms of goals that are significant to the individual and group.

Purpose of evaluation. The purpose of evaluation is to promote growth and development. By means of evaluation the principles that regulate and provide bases for planning learning activities are ascertained and put into operation. Evaluation gauges the extent to which various phases of action contribute to growth toward goals sought. It supplies criteria for selecting future goals. Evaluation, thus conceived, is an integral part of both teaching and learning. In most school situations the measurement of learning gains is generally undertaken at the end of specific intervals during or after an educational experience. Usually the time set for measurement is arbitrarily scheduled at the conclusion of a month, six-weeks' period, quarter, half-term, semester, or year. Evaluation, however, is to be regarded as continuous inasmuch as it may be uninterruptedly operative. Instead of *following* teaching-learning activities, it occurs *while teaching and learning are taking place* and is associated with the total process of development.

The purpose of evaluation is directly related to whatever concept of outcomes dominates the philosophy of those engaged in evaluation. If the term *outcomes* is taken to mean *end-products* that have already been achieved, they are generally objectives that have been set up before the learning began as fixed and invariable goals of learning. Objectives of this sort need only to be measured at the end of the learning period to ascertain the amount of information acquired by the learners. If, on the other hand, outcomes are thought of as qualities associated with the learning experiences, then they must be regarded as variable for different individuals and as somewhat flexible in respect to the amount of time and effort permitted for their achievement. Outcomes viewed on such a basis involve changes throughout the entire process rather than restricted aspects of net gains when the process is considered to have been completed.

Types of evaluation. Evaluation may be either informal or formal. Examples of informal evaluation include such simple judgments as, "Your sketch is very good," "That was a fine contribution," "The problem does not seem to be solved by applying your suggestion." "Your argument is irrelevant," or "Your paper indicates that your understanding of the subject matter is improving." Formal evaluation makes use of such measuring instruments as examinations, check lists, systematic anecdotal records, case studies, life histories, interest inventories, rating scales, and other systematic interpretive devices.

Informal evaluation may be employed readily by the learner himself, by his classmates, or by some external authority. It has

the further advantage of being immediately applicable in growth situations to initiate, encourage, direct, or modify activity. Informal evaluations are readily adaptable to learning situations since they do not make use of absolute scales that place individuals in unfavorable contrast to each other. They also avoid the development of attitudes that lead to policies of discrimination and segregation with consequent humiliation and embarrassment for many individuals in the group.

Informal evaluation makes it possible to ascribe similar qualities to several members of a group. For example, an entire class may have its learning described as "showing improvement" or "very good." A similar stimulating approach may be impossible when using methods of formal evaluation that are aimed specifically at differentiating minute degrees of quality in achievement.

Formal evaluation depends for its standards on differences in performance that exist within a group. It can be administered efficiently only by individuals who have been trained in its use. Generally it makes little or no allowance for variations in ability, purposefulness, extent of opportunity or other subjective qualities. Formal evaluation excludes self-evaluation and evaluation by members of the same age-group. Instead, it requires the learner to submit himself to a comparison of his accomplishments with those of others who have been subject to the instrument of formal evaluation employed by an external authority.

More than informal evaluation, formal evaluation tends to measure rather than appraise. It discovers "how much" or the "status of" in relation to statistical norms and distributions. It does not personally analyze the *value* of the quantity revealed by the measuring instrument for each individual concerned. It is not readily adaptable to growth situations, nor is it likely to be readily accepted by most members of the group as a valid means of appraising growth. Often formal evaluation does not yield results that are expressed in language understandable to the student or even to the teacher. Such evaluation has little usefulness, therefore, in promoting, encouraging, or constructively directing or modifying learning activity. Another inherent weakness of formal evaluation is the fact that it is not continuously applicable throughout the learning process inasmuch as its instruments, because of their nature, difficulty of administration, or their cost cannot be used frequently enough.

Democratic behavior generally is not encouraged by the use of formal evaluation because it tends to place emphasis upon external authority, fixed absolutes, and deterioration rather than the

improvement of group rapport. When teachers classify students according to their differences in measured amounts learned rather than in relation to their individual interests, goals, and aptitudes, and with little consideration for the quality of their thinking and acting, they are following despotic rather than democratic procedures.

Measurement and evaluation compared. Distinctions that exist between measurement and evaluation do not require that they be regarded as discrete processes, that considerable similarities do not exist between them, nor that measurement taken by itself is not important. Measurement is a significant and necessary aspect of the evaluation process. Measurement, however, does not offer by itself a sufficient basis for critical judgment nor does it furnish adequate means for appraising intangible qualities, feelings, attitudes, or values. Neither does it suffice to predict with any real assurance the subsequent behavior of an individual.

Measurement, taken alone, makes little provision for a student to share with his teacher or other students in the benefits that accompany careful evaluation of his and their growth and improvement. In measurement, persons who may be largely out of touch with the learning experience of the pupil set up ladder-like achievement tests on a so-called objective basis to determine how high each learner can climb under certain restricted conditions that afford him little opportunity to display other contributive talents that may count heavily for success in other less artificial situations. In evaluation, criteria are applied that are intimately applicable to the group that is experiencing the learning. Ideally, the individuals who are concerned with teaching and learning collaborate to formulate experience outcomes in an effort to improve future learning processes in the light of what they can discover and deduce concerning the relative success of current efforts.

Measurement	Evaluation
1. Often includes only paper and pencil tests.	1. Includes, besides tests, judgment-forming activities.
2. Deals with single isolated values.	2. Considers many values at a time.
3. Occurs at end of a learning period.	3. Is carried on continuously while learning is in progress.
4. Is concerned with knowledge, skills, generalizations, and habits.	4. Appraises attitudes, feelings, values, emotions, quality of experience, and growth in practice of social relationships.

the philosophy of democractic education, the contrasts that have previously existed between the traditional concept of teaching and guidance are rapidly disappearing.

Traditional teaching and guidance contrasted. Whereas teaching has been traditionally conceived as a process of compelling students to perform tasks set by the teacher, guidance is a process that permits individuals to make choices relative to tasks that are pertinent to problems and activities they recognize and accept. Teaching has often assumed the prerogatives of compulsion, direction, assignment, rule, judgment, and punishment. It frequently performs all the functions of policing, prosecution, judgment, and punishment. Guidance, on the other hand, accepts no responsibility for forcing individuals into predetermined patterns of behavior. Neither does it assume power over others. Guidance avoids compulsion and police powers. Likewise it accepts no responsibility for punishing individuals for the choices they make.

These contrasts between teaching and guidance have contributed to a situation in secondary schools in which teaching frequently promotes maladjustments in individual students, while guidance attempts to correct them. It is not unusual to find teachers and guidance counselors directly opposed in terms of purposes, functions, or point of view. The factors on which such opposition is based are illustrated as follows:

Traditional Teaching	Guidance
1. Makes choices for students.	1. Helps others make choices.
2. Forces conformity to institutional form.	2. Seeks to change institutional form when individuals are unable to adjust to it.
3. Provides evaluation by an external authority.	3. Helps individuals to understand themselves and to appraise their own behavior and accomplishments.
4. Emphasizes understanding of systematically organized subject matter.	4. Places emphasis on the adjustment of the individual and upon his ability to face his problems realistically.
5. Punishes failure to conform.	5. Searches for causes of maladjustment or nonconformity.
6. Tends to make insecure those who cannot achieve uniform standards in a prescribed length of time.	6. Aims at helping all achieve security.
7. Uses attitude of group against the individual.	7. Seeks to help the individual be accepted within the group.

Traditional Teaching (*continued*)	Guidance (*continued*)
8. Stresses academic growth.	8. Stresses total growth.
9. Tends to drive individuals with low ability out of school.	9. Attempts to help youth find opportunities for success in school.

When teaching and guidance come into conflict, teachers often feel that guidance counselors are "soft-hearted" and "too easy" on students. They scorn guidance because they believe that adolescents are too young and inexperienced to make choices for themselves.

Another factor that prohibits traditional teaching from accepting the techniques and goals of guidance is the degree to which teaching has been concerned with the memorization of subject matter rather than with the promotion of adjustment and growth in skills of living. Those concerned with guidance in schools that provide teaching of this type recognize that they devote most of their efforts to helping students who develop maladjustments as a result of this type of teaching. It is necessary, therefore, that guidance become a means of helping students to make adjustments to institutional forms and to authoritarian practices that are largely contrary to the best theory and practice of democratic education. In such situations the results of teaching and guidance may be directly in conflict—teaching contributing to maladjustment and guidance working for adjustment.

A major factor in the growth of the guidance movement has been the recognition that traditional teaching has not adequately met the needs of youth in our society. Guidance programs have been developed in many schools as remedies for the weaknesses of teaching. Thus, when we discover that the type of teaching offered youth tends to drive them out of school, guidance services have been provided in an effort to help young people choose to remain in school. When it is felt that young people are frustrated by inflexible arbitrary standards, they are sent to guidance counselors for diagnosis and treatment.

The solution to the conflict between teaching and guidance lies in adapting the theory and techniques of guidance to methods of teaching. By so doing, teaching becomes a process of guidance concerned with helping students maintain adjustment. When this goal is accomplished, many of the adjustment problems that are now frequently referred to the guidance specialist will be commonly studied by classroom teachers.

Guidance versus direction. The difficulties that most teachers

Measurement *(continued)*	**Evaluation** *(continued)*
5. Identifies quantitative achievement of pupils.	5. Improves qualitative judgments of pupils.
6. Is objective and impersonal.	6. Is subjective and personal.
7. Results in a sum of right and a sum of wrong answers to questions.	7. Results in decisions affecting policy, or conduct, improved thinking, deliberate judgments.
8. Considers as separate factors numerous discrete and often unimportant items.	8. Takes the whole situation into consideration.
9. Is based on atomistic or additive concept of learning.	9. Is based on the organismic integrative concept of learning.
10. Provides a momentary cross-section view of the student's status.	10. Makes possible a description of the student covering a long period of growth.
11. Describes the amount of something that already exists —what the pupil at the present moment knows.	11. Indicates the desirability of achieving what does not yet exist—what the pupil may become.
12. Supports the practice of isolating facts and skills and teaching them for their own sake.	12. Considers facts and skills as important only when they contribute meaning to experiences or assist in improving the management of learning situations.
13. Interprets the learner's performance through test norms derived from group measurements.	13. Interprets the individual or group in terms of their own growth patterns.
14. Is in accord with an educational science based on statistical predictability.	14. Indicates probable future behavior and accomplishment of students judged in a total situation.
15. Centers attention on external devices—marks, grades, credits, classification, and promotions.	15. Centers attention on internal conditions of the learner.
16. Allows and encourages unlimited competition among individuals.	16. Permits and encourages cooperation among individual students and with teachers.

Agents of Evaluation

The quality of evaluation depends on the individual or individuals who perform judgment making functions. Ideally, the agents of evaluation in a democratic society include the person whose growth is being evaluated and others who participate with him in the learning situation in which his progress is being evaluated. Each individual has the responsibility to develop skill in evaluating his own growth in terms of his needs and goals within the framework of his social group. In addition he should assume the responsibility of sharing with others in evaluating their progress toward goals of the group in which he is a member.

Four types of evaluating agents may be identified in relationship to their function in evaluating growth and development.

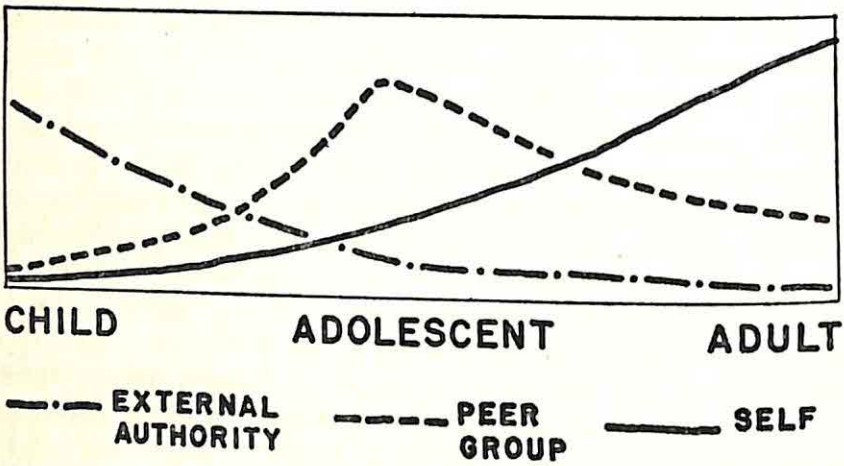
External authority. The most commonly employed agent of evaluation for youth of adolescent years is that of external authority. This type of evaluating agent, as found in the relationships of growing young people, is represented by parents, teachers, ministers, priests, and policemen and other adults. In a broad sense, whenever one person assumes the prerogative of judging another he becomes an agent of external authority employed in an evaluative process. From early childhood young people are taught to respond to evaluation made by external authority. It is necessary in any society for children to rely heavily upon the judgments of their elders. As young children they easily come to accept, with little or no questioning, the value patterns held before them by others who are more mature. The period of adolescence, however, is typically accompanied by a gradual growth in critical attitudes toward evaluation by external authority. The appearance of resistance toward external authority as an agent of evaluation is a healthy sign. Young people who are to grow into self-directing, self-evaluating, competent citizens must learn to make use of agents of evaluation other than those imposed on them by adult society.

Peer-groups. One agent of evaluation that assumes a function of considerable importance during adolescence is that of the peer-group. When members of an age-group make judgments about fellow youth, when groups attempt to plan and interpret group activities, whenever group judgments are made, the peer-group is most often the agent of evaluation.

Adolescent youth are generally more responsive to the judgments made by their classmates than they are to any other agent of evaluation, as illustrated in Figure 6. At this age young people

FIGURE 6

COMPARATIVE FUNCTIONING OF AGENTS OF EVALUATION



readily accept the value patterns considered most important by their classmates. They become keenly conscious of the judgments made of them and of their participation in activities endorsed by the group. During this period youth pay less attention to evaluations made by external authorities, parents, and teachers and other adults, but continue the tendency displayed by pre-adolescents to rebel against the judgments of adults. As young people begin to seek security in congenial relationships within a group, they increasingly find pleasure in group activities. As they become conscious that happiness is dependent on their relationships with other youth, they find values that are important to them in the attitudes and opinions of their peers.

Self-evaluation. Through self-evaluation the individual becomes increasingly able to judge his needs and purposes and more competent in meeting them through co-operative effort. This type of evaluation, although always functioning more or less, is frequently overlooked when learning activities are being developed. Young people evaluate their activities in terms of their personal interests, recognized needs, and accepted goals, but teachers often are unaware of the significance that such evaluations play in determining growth.

During middle and later adolescence capacity for self-evaluation becomes highly developed. As young people gain security in relationships with others of their own age, they begin to formulate value patterns that to them are meaningful. These patterns may

differ considerably from value concepts held by groups to which they belong. During this period young adults begin to evaluate their activities and experiences in terms of personal life goals. Inasmuch as goals differ, each pupil must necessarily evolve a method of procedure that takes into consideration his own personal goals and degree of achievement in connection with his preferred activities as they assume new social and vocational meanings in respect to his plans for the future. The student who has decided to become a doctor, for example, becomes increasingly critical of his success in the study of chemistry, since he knows the mastery of this subject to be a necessary step in the attainment of his professional goal. Natural progress toward maturity leads youth to depend increasingly upon self-evaluation as a major factor in determining satisfactory achievement.

Before youth reach later adolescence, during their junior college years, they should have become proficient in the capacity for self-evaluation and should have found it unnecessary to depend heavily on evaluation by classmates. Under normal conditions they very likely will have dispensed almost entirely with evaluation by external authority.

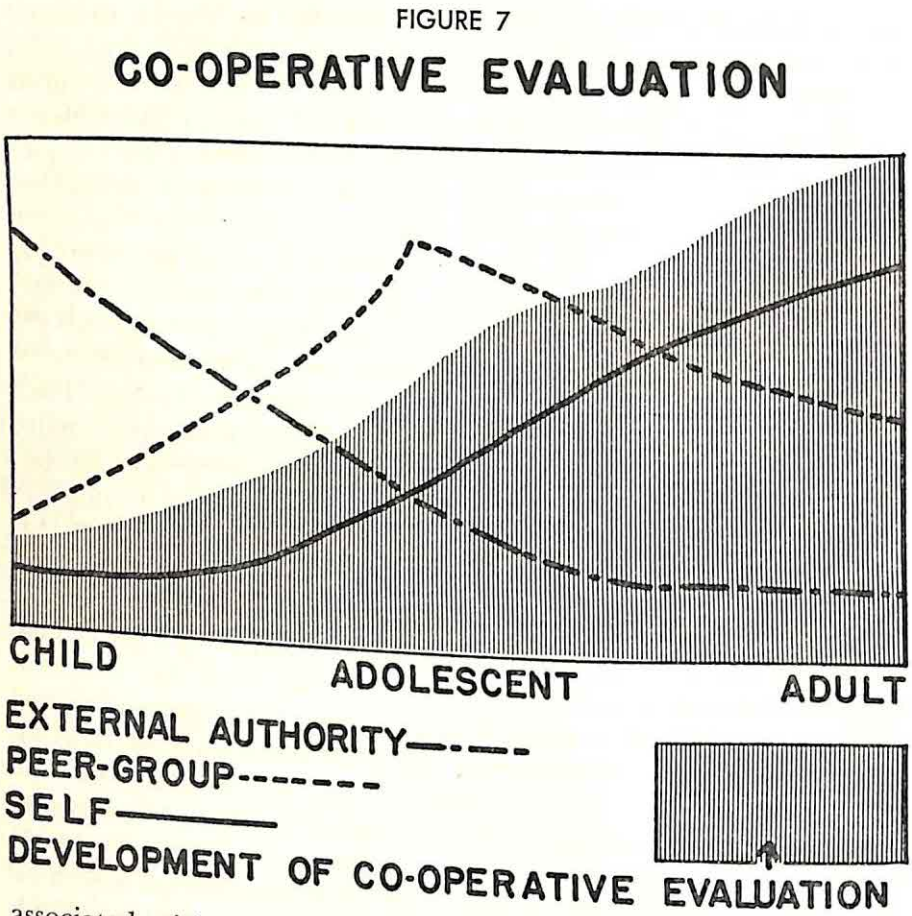
Evaluation within a co-operating group. An important type of evaluation that deserves careful consideration is that of co-operative appraisal. Individuals who attempt to live together cooperatively find it necessary to share in the process of evaluation. This type of evaluation involves working with others to decide the value of courses of action, individual and group activities, group goals, and operational procedures. The extent to which evaluation by a co-operating group is successful in improving the quality of its collective thinking is a measure of its significance.

As youth develop increasing capacity for social co-operation and responsiveness, they become able to share more extensively in co-operative evaluation, as illustrated in Figure 7. Adults should be competent to provide self-evaluation, but at the same time they should acquire ability to engage in co-operative evaluation that is directed toward the appraisal of group action. The effective adult citizen is able to judge the worth of his own actions in terms of his personal goals and in relation to the broader goals of his group. In addition, he should be able to co-operate with others in evaluating the worth of group activities as related to commonly accepted objectives.

Observation, the Source of Evaluation

All forms of evaluation depend on observation. Techniques of evaluation may be classified according to the kind of observation

FIGURE 7



associated with their use. Each technique of evaluation may be used to a lesser or greater degree by the learner himself in self-evaluation, by his companions in his own natural group situations, or by the teacher or parent as a source of the external authority type of evaluation.

Observation of undirected activities. Certain kinds of growth may be appraised most effectively through the observation of undirected activities. Interests, adjustments to others, attitudes, tastes, and appreciations may be evaluated most effectively in situations that are not controlled by external authority. In a typical secondary school the extraclass activity program, including dances, parties, clubs, and student government, furnishes the best examples of voluntary activities. In schools that have developed democratically directed class groups, some such observations may be made within the framework of classroom situations. The important consideration in evaluation of this type is that opportunity be found to observe the behavior of students in situations in

which authoritarian restraints are removed and from which artificial incentives are absent.

Observation during personal conference or interview. Evaluation may take place during a personal conference between the learner and the teacher. Such conferences between the teacher and a student may be relatively free from tensions provided that rapport is well established and the conference is a part of the normal routine of school operation. In such situations appraisal may be effective when related to attitudes and other emotional responses; intellectual development, including problem-solving ability; and computational skill. When interviews are conducted under tense conditions the range of evaluation possible is likely to be restricted. Such interviews may afford, however, opportunity to evaluate the individual's ability to cope with frustrations or new experiences.

Observation of behavior in critical situations. Often the best source of information about the growth and adjustment of an individual is found in certain tension-filled situations that occur occasionally in almost every secondary school. If we wish to appraise growth in independent action, we may profitably observe a student in a tense situation such as a school election, an athletic contest, the production of a play, a debate, during interclass activities, registration, or an examination.

Observing results of production. Productions developed during learning experiences afford a common means of evaluating growth in verbal, aesthetic, number, or organizational abilities. Examples of such productions include notebooks, drawings, essays, laboratory manuals, critical papers such as those written by students in literature and certain technical classes, reports, outlines, musical compositions, and paintings. In this type of observation the student is not necessarily present at the time the appraisal is made. It is possible, however, for the student or other members of the class to participate in the process of evaluation. Even when the student does not have an opportunity to share co-operatively with the teacher in observing and evaluating the results of productions, he still may make his own evaluations of such evidences of growth.

Observation of recorded responses. Accumulation of knowledge may be measured by analyzing responses to either oral or written stimuli such as questionnaires, tests, and inventories. Written instruments of evaluation may be of two types: those that permit a free response to a major problem, commonly called essay examinations; and those that require specific reactions to minute segments of major problems. The latter have come to be known

superficially as objective-type tests. Selection and arrangement of items for such tests may be subjective. This type of evaluation, according to Kelly, is based on the assumption that a fragment of subject matter is the same to the learner and to the teacher, and to one learner as to another. That is, we can expect all the members of a class to learn the same thing and to extract the same meaning from it.[1]

Evaluation based on observation of responses to standardized tests is arbitrary. It may be unreliable because of certain restrictions. Often only one application of the test is made in one testing situation, and there may be only one specific statement of each question. Flexibility is reduced because of the absence of face-to-face relationship. Tensions are produced by time limits and by the importance placed upon use of results. No provision is made in this type of evaluation for variations in ability, background, interests, physical state, recognized goals, or security status. Since the results of evaluation are expressed in terms of statistical devices understandable only to experts, a personal element that is so important for promotion of desirable growth is lacking. Exclusive use of such instruments in evaluation discourages self-evaluation and evaluation by socialized methods. In fact, it makes almost impossible the development of shared evaluation. Because of these defects, use of such instruments can make contributions of only a limited nature to some of the most important goals of education in our society.

Written responses also may be made in the form of answers to general questions such as usually compose the essay type examination. Although we sometimes think of this type of examination as less objective than the multiple-choice, true-false, or completion-type of test, in reality the difference between the two types—the single-response and the whole-response—often lies in the point at which subjectivity enters into the measuring process as is illustrated below.

Type	Choice of Items	Scoring
"Objective" or Single Response True-false, multiple-choice, completion, matching.	*Subjective.* Depends upon what test-maker considers important items and his conception of correct or most desirable responses. Terminology of question is basic.	*Objective.* Almost anyone can check the unit responses against the prepared "key." This process can be exact, definite, and uniform.

[1] Earl C. Kelley, *Education for What is Real.* New York: Harper and Brothers, 1947, 114 pp.

Type (*continued*)	Choice (*continued*)	Scoring (*continued*)
Essay or Whole Response Essay, discussion, comparison-type questions.	*Objective.* Questions can be selected that will mean essentially the same to all. Emphasis is on ability to respond after question is understood.	*Subjective.* Scores depend upon the agreement between student responses and the concepts held by the person grading the paper.

Each of these two types of evaluation represents, however, ways of observing the recorded responses of students, and each has a certain usefulness. Advantages of the single-response type of instrument are found in the possibility of sampling knowledge and attitudes related to many broad areas in a short period of time. The whole-response type of written examination has the advantage of permitting the demonstration of ability to organize and express ideas clearly and correctly in writing and of showing ability to apply knowledge and understanding to problems.

Making observation objective. Many teachers feel that personal observations and judgments relative to student growth and development are too subjective to be relied upon extensively. During recent years more and more school systems have come to rely on standardized tests as devices for obtaining specific, differentiated results in evaluating student progress. In some schools the quality of teaching has sometimes been judged largely in terms of the scores made by pupils on standardized tests that were developed in isolation from the learning experiences in which students engaged. In some instances conditions developed that appeared to discredit the ability of teachers to observe and accurately appraise progress of their students.

Within the past two decades our increasing sensitivity to the weaknesses and inadequacies of standardized instruments has led us to reconsider the importance of direct observation as an aspect of evaluation. Efforts have been made to discover ways of making observation objective and to measure the objectiveness of this method of appraisal.[2] We are now coming to believe that the careful judgments of trained teachers are fully as reliable as

[2] One study of the judgments of teachers relative to the social beliefs of their students revealed that evaluations made by teachers coincided in 90 per cent of the cases with interpretations of test scores obtained from the Scale of Social Beliefs, an instrument developed by the Evaluation Committee of the Progressive Education Association. See Eugene R. Smith and Ralph W. Tyler, *Appraising and Recording Student Progress.* New York: Harper and Brothers, 1942, p. 227.

measures obtained through the use of objective instruments.[3] It is becoming increasingly common to find that trained observers are being used to collect data in scientific investigations concerned with individual and group behavior.[4] There is no reason to believe that research using observation as a means of recording responses is any less objective than that which relies upon paper-and-pencil instruments. It has become evident that observation can be an objective means of appraising and recording growth if the individual doing the observing is trained in the techniques of observation and if skill is carefully applied.[5] Suggestions that have been made with respect to ways in which teachers may improve the objectiveness of observations urge that:[6]

1. Teachers should work co-operatively in study groups to improve abilities to observe and record accurately student behavior symptoms.
2. Competence in observation may be developed through systematic study of one or two students over a period of time.
3. The case study approach is useful in making interpretations of behavior symptoms.
4. Through conscious practice in analyzing the causes of overt behavior symptoms, recorded observations become more valuable than any other type of data for evaluation.
5. Other instruments should be employed whenever possible to check the results of observations.

[3] This point of view is supported in the report of the committee for the Forty-Fifth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, *The Measurement of Understanding*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1946, pp. 334–335.

[4] See the following studies:

H. H. Anderson, *Studies of Teachers' Classroom Personalities* (No. II, American Psychological Association). Stanford, California: Stanford University Press. 1946, 128 pp.

Kurt Lewin, Ronald Lippitt, and Ralph K. White, "Patterns of Aggressive Behavior in Experimentally Created 'Social Climates,'" *Journal of Social Psychology*, 10:271–279, May, 1939.

[5] The following report of the American Council on Education describes how one group of teachers improved their ability to observe and record accurately symptoms of student growth and adjustment:

The American Council on Education, Commission on Teacher Education, *Helping Teachers Understand Children*. Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1945, 468 pp.

[6] Gertrude Driscoll, *How to Study the Behavior of Children*. New York: Teachers' College, Columbia University, Bureau of Publications, 1941, 84 pp.

Horace B. English and Victor Rainy, *Studying the Individual School Child*. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1941, 131 pp.

Fritz Redl, *Helping Teachers Study Their Children* (mimeographed). Chicago: Division of Child Development, University of Chicago, 1941, 14 pp.

T. L. Torgerson, *Studying Children*. New York: Dryden Press, 1946, 230 pp.

American Council on Education, *Helping Teachers Understand Children*. Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1945, 486 pp.

Standards of Evaluation

One of the most insidious educational practices is the use of evaluation standards that are at variance with the goals of the society that education is expected to serve. Attention has been called to the kinds of evaluation, the agents that may be employed to effect it, sources for additional data, and the significance of certain practices in evaluation. From whatever position a study of evaluation is approached, it becomes apparent that whenever it is undertaken, a standard of one kind or another is held before those who assume the responsibility; and this standard is consciously or unconsciously imposed upon those whose efforts are to be appraised.

Absolute perfection. In some spheres the standard of evaluation can be perfection itself. Examples may be found in mathematical formulas, rules, conjugations, and dates in history. The material learned can be measured in amount, and students who have perfect responses to questions can be given perfect scores. Practice in the use of measuring instruments such as the essay examination also sets up a standard which permits the pupil to qualify for a mark of 100 per cent or an "A." This type of standard is arbitrarily set and is used regardless of what the questions may be or the ability of the student who attempts to answer them. When applied to measurement of achievement in such fields as English, history, sociology, physics, or foreign language, it usually consists of a small sampling of the material taught with the sampling being changed for different classes. The mark of evaluation, however, always depends on how well the student responds to the questions asked. Such a standard places a premium upon memory and ability to judge what the questions will include so that suitable preparation may be made. This type of evaluative standard permits only a minority of the pupils in a group, who are usually rather consistently the same individuals, to be given a successful rating.

Relative performance. Psychologists and educators in general felt that a great advance was made in evaluation when, with the advent of standardized tests, the ideal of perfection was more or less set aside, and the *average*, or median performance of the group, was substituted as a standard. The same stigma soon became attached, however, to "being below the median" as was previously associated with making 68 per cent instead of passing, or of being in the second quartile as compared to making a "C" grade. Because test-makers felt that they were being objective, and

face in attempting to develop techniques of teaching compatible with this point of view lie in the commitment to the theory that teaching is a process of giving direction. Direction "tells" what to do or what to believe. Teaching procedures in which direction has played an important part include selection of goals of learning; making assignments; choosing of study activities; definition of standards of achievement; and evaluation of student productions; establishment of behavior codes, classification into grade groups; and selection of curricula.

Direction as a procedure is predicated on the belief that students must continue to have almost every important decision made for them by those who are better informed and more mature. It is argued in behalf of direction that since youths have never engaged in occupations, adults—parents or teachers—must tell them which occupations they should plan to enter. Since youths have never studied high school subjects, it is believed that teachers and parents can choose more wisely for them. In some societies similar beliefs lead parents to choose the marriage mates for their children since, by the same arguments, those who have experienced marriage are considered to be wiser than the uninitiated.

Obviously, direction is a tool of an authoritarian or paternalistic philosophy. It aims at forcing conformity to the decisions of an external authority, and it affords little opportunity for the development of independent thought and action. Even in a democratic society, however, direction plays an important role during the early stages of childhood. The process of socialization involved in almost any known type of organized living helps the young to learn the skills and ideals of living subscribed to by the social group. Children gradually acquire those capacities necessary for a high order of social adjustment. At first they are almost entirely subject to the direction and control of adults; eventually they achieve ability to provide themselves with self-direction—this being a major goal of both teaching and guidance.

The degree to which guidance and direction will be employed is determined by the character of the society and the maturity of the learner. Direction is necessary during early stages of growth, but through guidance the capacity for self-direction is developed. By the time young people reach the secondary school some will have already achieved a great deal of competence for self-direction. Many students will have held after-school or summer jobs that required them to exercise independent judgment and self-direction. Others will have assumed broad responsibilities for home activities. Almost all will have had opportunity for manag-

ing personal budgets, and a few will have had the experience of earning their own living. The problem is to help each individual youth continue growth toward a status of independent action. Guidance is the process by which this goal may be achieved.

In guidance, teachers have the instrument and the techniques for furthering self-direction. They have an approach that not only is attuned to the maturation stage of adolescent youth who are inherently struggling to achieve independence from external authority but one that is also compatible to the theory of democratic living. When teachers, by adhering to teaching procedures that are based on concepts of external direction, fail to further the development of self-direction, they fail to strengthen their students and thereby do not strengthen the society of which they are responsible members and whose official agents they are.

Issues Related to the Guidance Approach in Teaching

Arguments with respect to the extent to which a guidance approach may be employed in teaching relate primarily to the characteristics of adolescent youth, the compatibility of guidance and discipline, the adaptability of guidance procedures, the relationship of general education to individual goals, the factor of teacher load, and the quality of teachers found in secondary schools. An attempt to develop teaching from the guidance point of view will be confronted with questions related to certain issues that seem to be basic with respect to the assumption that teaching can be accomplished through a process of guidance.

Adolescent youth are sufficiently mature to make intelligent choices. High on the list of the objections of many who oppose the development of a guidance point of view in teaching is the old and classically authoritarian argument that adolescents are incapable of making intelligent decisions on important matters. The supporters of this position agree that young people must be taught self-direction, but at the same time they hold that parents and teachers must assume the responsibility of seeing that mistakes are not made in the process.

In secondary schools this point of view permits students to "play at" making decisions on problems that have been selected by the teacher. Ultimate choices must be approved or actually made by the teacher. As a result, students must study the units, topics, problems, or exercises that the teacher sets for them. Choices must be restricted, therefore, to study procedures. This approach nullifies the function of guidance since the student is

not actually permitted to participate in the "decision making."

Are adolescents capable of making intelligent decisions? This question seems to be the point of divergence between those who believe that teaching should be guidance and those who maintain that teaching must retain as its basic approach the concept of direction. In examining this question we must remind ourselves that maturity is not determined entirely by chronological age but partly by the quality of living that an individual has experienced. The boy who has had little opportunity to make decisions before reaching the secondary school will need time and help in order to gain experiences of this type.

It must be remembered also that no two youths will have reached an equal degree of maturity with respect to ability to make intelligent decisions. Some will be as mature as their teachers in this respect, whereas others will seem almost helpless. When working as a part of a group, however, all youths can participate to the extent of their ability in the decision-making process.

To realize the extent to which many youths are able to make intelligent decisions relative to vital problems we need only to study carefully any random selection of high school students. The following are descriptions of students in one tenth-grade English class in Ohio.

Charles, sixteen years old, had for two years rented and worked a forty-acre farm next to the farm of his father. In addition to raising crops he followed the practice each year of buying calves that he fattened and shipped to market. All decisions related to his farming and stock growing operations were made by Charles with the guidance of his father and his vocational agriculture instructor. Charles' annual income considerably exceeded that of his high school principal.

Since entering the seventh grade, Mary had been saving money by making her own clothes. She began earning money for her personal needs by carrying a paper route during the latter years of the war when it was difficult to find boys for such work. In addition she took care of children, and each summer she worked at a summer camp for tourists where she waited on tables. A well-dressed, popular girl, Mary hoped to save enough money to pay her way through a nurses' training school.

Lloyd had been the principal supporter of his widowed mother since he was ten years old. Although they received periodic help from the county welfare board, most of the funds for maintaining the household came from Lloyd's earnings from selling papers, from firing furnaces for neighbors in the winter, and from working at odd jobs during the summer months.

Alfred was a good student when judged in terms of the grades he had earned previously; he had a good memory and usually did his schoolwork as directed. His home was one of means; consequently, he was asked to assume no responsibility for chores. His allowance was enough to take care of his recreational interests, which were varied. He never had a job or the experience of earning money, choosing his own clothes, deciding which summer camp he would attend, or selecting friends to be invited to his home.

Obviously the degree of maturity for self-direction varies considerably among the students described. Charles, Mary, and Lloyd are all able to look out for themselves, but Alfred needs opportunities to learn how to make choices for himself. One gets the impression that if Alfred is able to share in group decision-making related to problems recognized as important by the group, he will gain from the contributions of classmates like Charles and Mary. In the same sense, it is probable that Lloyd would find much-needed security from his being able to identify himself during the time he is in school with a group of his own age.

Another example illustrates how youth of adolescent years are capable of making crucial judgments when faced with the necessity and when encouraged to do so. The following story was told, during the summer of 1948, to a group of teachers at The Ohio State University by Miss Tien-Hsiang Tu, former principal of the Chin Chun School, Tientsin, China.[2]

When the Japanese army invaded Tientsin, China, in 1944, it took immediate steps to influence the educational programs of the Chinese schools in the direction of supporting the invasion. Orders which had to be carried out were issued to school principals. Those administrators and teachers who failed to comply, outwardly at least, with instructions were handled in characteristically authoritarian ways. Some disappeared completely; others were later found after having been killed by assorted types of vicious mutilations.

In February, 1944, a new order came from the Japanese-controlled bureau of education to the effect that on those days with numbers ending in eight (called the Great Eight Days by the Japanese, who considered that number to be lucky), students of the schools were to gather in assembly rooms to pray for victory. Each school was ordered to prepare for early inspection.

In the school of which I was principal we tried unsuccessfully several times to practice putting the new order into effect prior to the time when we knew Japanese inspectors would come to see how well the instructions were being carried out. Each practice session broke up in confusion. The students laughed, jeered, and in numerous ways showed

[2] Published with the permission of Miss Tien-Hsiang Tu.

thus fair to those who were to take the tests, many believed that they had reached a stage that could not be improved upon in evaluative practice. Students still were held responsible for the same subject matter and given tests that were purposely made too difficult for any of them to achieve consistently perfect scores. Relative performance within a group, or in relation to "national norms," became a criterion that was defended on all sides except by the students themselves. Tests were made in all subject matter fields and in traits of personality, character, interest, social behavior, and special aptitudes. Objectives were formulated and experiments made to determine validity and reliability, primarily in respect to the tests, themselves, rather than in respect to the qualifications of the students.

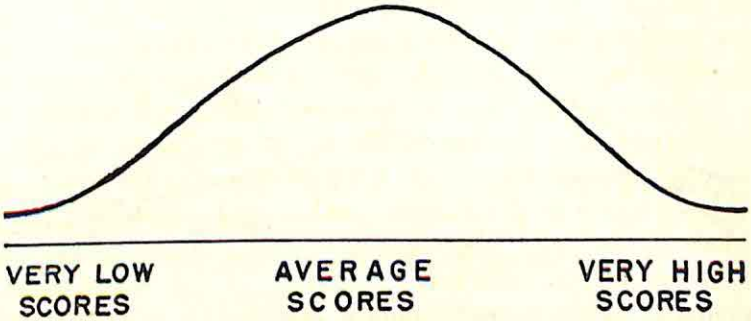
Use of the "relative performance" standard was so exacting that a score of 73 on a test might place a student in the "C" group when a score of 74 gave him the right to be judged a "B" student. Statistical devices became the arbitrary determinants of the scale of evaluation and just as many students were "weeded out" as had been the case when perfection was used as a guide. Such forms of evaluation made the subject matter or trait measured the important consideration, not the individual or group of students being examined.

Measurement aimed at differentiation of performance soon became used almost exclusively to catalogue students according to the curve of normal probability. As a result, there was made, and in many places there continues to be made, a serious error in measuring and reporting progress, namely, the assigning of marks and promotions to small groups of students in terms of the characteristics of the normal curve of distribution. The error grows out of a misunderstanding of the meaning of the curve of probability. Although such traits as height, weight, or verbal skill in a homogeneous population, if the number of cases is sufficiently large, will tend to be distributed in accordance with the curve of normal probability, the case will not be such in most of our testing situations. If ten thousand high school seniors, all of whom have studied American history, take the same multiple-choice examination in this subject, the scores will tend to range from a few very high to a few very low with the majority being clustered near the center of the scale in such a manner as to approximate a distribution curve similar to that shown in Figure 8.

If the number of seniors who take the test could be increased to fifty thousand the distribution of scores would remain essentially the same.

FIGURE 8

DISTRIBUTION OF TEST SCORES IN ACCORDANCE WITH CURVE OF NORMAL PROBABILITY



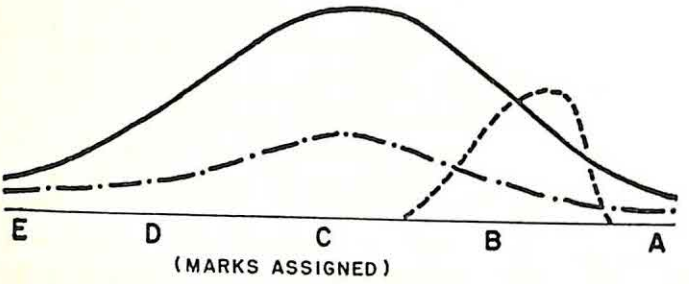
The normal curve of probability represents, therefore, the distribution that results from segregating and progressively arranging the like scores of a large number of representative students under such circumstances. It might be thought of as the statistical "tracks" left by the results. It represents a pattern of distribution that can be anticipated when the population is homogeneous and the trait measured differentiative. The error under discussion results when attempts are made to force small numbers of traits to conform to the pattern of the so-called normal curve of probability that typically results from the distribution of ten thousand or more recordings of this sort. When a smaller number of the population is represented within a sampling and when there is a lack of instruments that have been standardized upon the entire population, there is no way of knowing the relationship between such a small sampling and the total population. For example, in assigning marks for a class of thirty-five according to the normal curve, we may be distorting the actual distribution as is illustrated in Figure 9. In the case illustrated, the so-called failures are actually *created* by the arbitrary assignment of marks.[7]

Individualized evaluation. A goal that has been frequently discussed but whose attainment has not been made a consistently sought educational objective is that of evaluating individuals on the basis of what they are able to do, the amount of growth they

[7] This situation is aptly illustrated by a high school science teacher who discovered that he had been giving failing marks to students who, when given the Cooperative Examination in Physics, made scores higher than 40 per cent of the students of high school physics who had taken the same examination. With an obviously selected group of students in terms of their knowledge of high school physics, this teacher was actually making "failures" out of some good students by assigning marks in arbitrary accordance with the normal curve of probability.

FIGURE 9

DISTORTION OF ACTUAL DISTRUBUTION OF MARKS IN ORDER TO CONFORM TO CURVE OF NORMAL PROBABILITY



DISTRIBUTION OF MARKS AS THEY SHOULD HAVE BEEN ASSIGNED IN COMPARISON WITH THE SCORES OF 10,000 HIGH SCHOOL SENIORS

FORCED DISTRIBUTION OF MARKS IN ORDER TO CONFORM TO CURVE OF NORMAL PROBABILITY

NORMAL CURVE OF PROBABILITY.. THE DISTRIBUTION OF SCORES OF 10,000 OR MORE STUDENTS ON THE AMERICAN HISTORY EXAMINATION

can and do realize, the importance of what is learned in relation to individual purposes, extent of adjustment and personal satisfaction attained, personal contribution to the achievement of group goals, and the extent to which the needs of the individual and society have been met.

When such a practice is followed, there will no longer be stated amounts of subject matter nor uniform courses required of all students of a group. Even though the same areas of knowledge may be thought desirable for all, there will be differentiation in the phases in which various individuals will specialize and variation in both the quantity and the quality of learning to be considered satisfactory. No longer will students be required to submit to uniform instruments of evaluation with perfection as the standard. They will not be compared to their fellows or to national norms to find out whether they have achieved satisfactorily. Objectives of the "course" will give way to personalized or, at most, to group goals and purposes. Evaluation will consist of ascertaining individual growth made, not in terms of conformity to arbitrary standards of perfection nor in relation to the achievement of others, but with respect to the individual's past record and in accordance with how well his personal needs are being met.

If individual differences that have been recognized and held to be desirable are to be respected, individual evaluation is an ap-

propriate standard for appraising student growth. Such is not the case in an autocratic society where the material to be learned is uniformly required and the instruments of evaluation are rigidly set, where memory is the primary function of mind employed, and where perfection is the standard used as a basis for evaluation. When society admits that different levels of attainment can have similar value to the group, where respect for individual worth is prevalent, and when the effect on personality is of more importance than the arbitrary bases for evaluation, democratic practices of evaluation will prevail and the ideals of Browning as expressed in *Pippa Passes*

> All service ranks the same with God;
> There is no first nor last.

will be met.

Appraisal Related to Social Competency

The practice of evaluating learning in terms of the ability to reproduce learned material is inadequate in the light of present day goals for social competency. Inasmuch as our secondary schools are charged with the responsibility of developing competent citizens, they must undertake to evaluate pupil growth in terms of this purpose.

Growth in skills that contribute to the achievement of social competency. Evaluation falls short of its responsibility when it fails to appraise the degree to which youth make progress toward developing competence for wholesome social adjustment. An examination of the outcomes that prevalently are sought through formal education reveals the need for developing improved techniques of appraising growth. The following are traits and characteristics generally recognized as necessary for successful living in a democratic society:

1. Ability to think critically.
2. Respect for and appreciation of the worth of others.
3. Willingness for and habits of participation.
4. Concern for the welfare of all.
5. Skill in communication.
6. Appreciation for democratic values.
7. Self-direction in thought and action.
8. Self-discipline in terms of personal and group values.
9. Willingness to accept responsibility for group activities.
10. Habits of mental and physical health.

their rebellion toward the instructions and displayed their basic hatred for the enemy.

The final practice session, held on the day preceding the first inspection, was approached with the student body solidly determined to refuse to join with the invading enemy in prayer for success on the field of battle. My own fear of the consequences to be faced as a result of the students under my supervision disobeying orders was overwhelming. As the students gathered in the assembly, the laughing and hissing began almost immediately before any instructions could be offered. In the face of this situation I reminded myself of my professional conviction that adolescent youth could be trusted to make intelligent decisions with respect to crucial matters. After some effort I managed to obtain the attention of everyone. Then I said to them, "It is not unusual for human beings to be faced with difficult problems which require rational thinking and the making of decisions relative to individual and group action. Let me suggest to you that at this time you use your intelligence." With these words I placed my life and the lives of all members of the faculty and student body in the hands of about forty young people [3] and retired from the room to permit them to decide how they would meet this situation.

The relief I felt when the inspector told me that the students in my school had satisfactorily conformed to instructions from the bureau of education was tempered by the realization that these students had been forced by the situation into hypocritical actions in order to protect themselves and their teachers. But after the inspector had gone, one of the students approached to reassure me by saying, "Yesterday, after you had told us to use our intelligence and had left us to do so, we decided that it would be possible for us to conscientiously pray for victory without indicating which nations were the beneficiaries of our prayers."

It is significant to note that the incident above was reported by a foreign student who had come to America to learn more about democratic institutions and the techniques of democratic education. We can hope that teachers in America will continue to develop their own faith in the ability of adolescents to reach intelligent decisions to a point where they too would be willing to trust their lives to the process of co-operative action.

Making discipline and guidance compatible. It is frequently argued by those who prefer that guidance be the prerogative of the specialist, that the person who administers discipline cannot possibly be expected to provide guidance. This point of view is

[3] Although the Chin Chun School included only elementary grades during the war, the ages of the youth involved ranged from twelve to seventeen years. No student government was permitted by the Japanese authorities, but students met as a class group to face this problem.

based on a definition of discipline adapted to the disciplinary practices common in secondary schools of the past. Such a position apparently does not permit a definition of discipline that would permit the utilization of a guidance approach to behavior problems.

A major danger in accepting the notion that discipline and guidance are incompatible and hence cannot be provided by the same individual lies in the fact that application of such a theory would exclude important people from the function of guidance. Groups that would be ineligible to perform guidance because of their obvious responsibility for discipline might be considered to include parents, teachers, school administrators, juvenile court counselors, social case workers, ministers, recreational leaders, club sponsors, and others. In fact, if this position were taken, almost everyone except professional guidance workers would have to be excluded from the guidance program.

From the point of view of developing guidance as a specialization reserved for the expert, such a position finds its major justification. But when the improvement of teaching is our concern, we face the need of examining this hypothesis more closely.

When discipline means "punishment," the person who administers the punishment may find it difficult to induce individuals who have been punished by him on previous occasions to analyze their problems of adjustment. It is generally recognized that inflicting punishment is incompatible with the point of view of guidance. Likewise, if discipline is concerned with arbitrarily adapting individuals to institutional form it has little companionship with guidance.

On the other hand, if discipline is thought of as constructive assistance that is offered to the individual to aid him in the solution of problems of adjustment, it can be directly identified with guidance. When teaching is approached from a guidance point of view, problems that under traditional circumstances would call for disciplinary action may be solved in accordance with attitudes and techniques that are directly of a guidance character. This relationship is illustrated in the following analysis:

CLASSROOM PROBLEM

Marvin, a member of an eighth-grade social studies class, refused to carry out his part of a committee assignment that he had previously accepted. When the teacher was asked to help the committee evaluate its success in working together, Marvin abruptly said, "I don't like the members of this class, and I'm not going to work with this committee"

TEACHER ACTION

Traditional Teaching	Teaching as Guidance
Diagnoses Marvin's action as a disciplinary problem.	*Treats Marvin's outburst as a symptom only.*
1. Takes steps to force Marvin to co-operate.	1. Seeks for more fundamental cause of unhappiness that leads to poor co-operation within group.
2. Uses punishment or threats to force demonstration of acceptable overt behavior.	2. Recognizes need for more information about Marvin.
3. Lectures Marvin on the necessity of his learning to "get along" with other members of the group.	3. Seeks ways of becoming acquainted with Marvin's previous growth and adjustment record.
4. Is alert for further evidence of rebellion in Marvin.	4. Studies Marvin's home background.
5. Encourages other members of group to express disapproval of Marvin's attitude.	5. Utilizes techniques for discovering Marvin's status in group.
	6. Encourages Marvin to discuss freely in individual interview his reaction to school and other experiences.
	7. Works with group to help it accept Marvin and to find ways of making him feel an important and necessary member.
	8. Sets up immediate procedure for helping Marvin attain a more satisfactory relationship with other class members.
	9. Records behavior in order that further study of symptoms may reveal any significant trend that can be diagnosed in relationship to basic causes of lack of adjustment.

The development of a guidance point of view in teaching implies that old-fashioned "discipline" of the "apply the rod to save the child" variety will be supplanted by the application of procedure appropriate to the causes of maladjustments and to the overt behavior evidenced.

It should be admitted that not all teachers and perhaps no

individual teacher at all times will be able to avoid situations in which they must make use of "punishments." Situations of this sort occasionally result from lack of time in which to study a particular problem. They may be caused also by insecurity or by lack of skill of the teacher with respect to techniques of guidance. It can be argued, however, that the administration of discipline, even of this type, does not necessarily reduce the teachers' effectiveness for guidance—provided that all relationships with young people are based on fairness, as judged by both the teacher and the student, and on reaching a condition of mutual understanding that always keeps in view the best interests of the individual boy or girl concerned.

We may well doubt the validity of the assumption that guidance must be provided by individuals who always maintain a type of "Pollyanna" rapport with everyone. We should therefore question any effort to set the guidance specialist apart as the "friend of the student" as opposed to the teacher, who in such situations may, by implication at least, be very differently classified as the disciplinarian. If guidance—its theory and techniques—is to permeate the entire structure of the educative experience and if it is to make its maximum contribution to the development of democratic method, it must come to be more efficiently used by all teachers as an aid in promoting growth and adjustment. When this is accomplished, there will be no argument over whether the person who administers discipline should be permitted also to provide guidance.

Adaptation of clinical procedure to group situations. Efforts to use clinical procedures developed by guidance specialists as regular teaching techniques have proved discouraging to many teachers. It is impossible for teachers under present conditions of load and multiple teaching assignments to study the behavior of every student, maintain cumulative records, conduct individual interviews, make case studies, hold conferences, and undertake follow-up evaluations.

These procedures are used regularly in clinical counseling where each counselor works with one person at a time and seldom with more than one individual during an hour. Clinical procedures are adapted to a relationship that provides for several specialists to help one individual solve his problem. In teaching, the situation is completely reversed because each teacher must help many students. If teaching is to become an effective process of guidance, however, improved ways of adapting clinical procedures to its needs should be developed.

Fortunately, teachers can make use of the techniques of group

To evaluate growth toward such outcomes it is necessary to do more than to measure how much students have learned and how they say that they feel. Their behavior under normal conditions also must be carefully studied.

Some promising trends in evaluation. Certain promising developments in the field of evaluation suggest the direction in which further progress that will contribute to more effective appraisal of growth is most likely to occur.

The instruments and procedures developed during the Eight-Year Study of the Progressive Education Association [8] are useful in evaluating growth in many factors of social competency. In this study, instruments were developed that are designed to perform the following functions:

1. Measure ability to analyze and interpret data.
2. Test ability to apply scientific principles.
3. Appraise the applications of principles that are employed in logical reasoning.
4. Identify basic factors in proof.
5. Appraise social sensitivity.
6. Measure appreciation.
7. Identify and analyze interests.
8. Evaluate personal and social adjustment.

The relationship between these types of evaluation and the factors in social competency is readily apparent. Here are efforts to evaluate some of the outcomes that are basic to successful living in our society. As an illustration of the manner in which appraisal was carried on in this study, a brief description of the process and instruments for measuring social sensitivity, item 5, is included here.[9]

In developing an instrument to measure beliefs that are concerned with basic social issues, the Committee on Evaluation of the Progressive Education Association first attempted to identify problems with respect to important social attitudes. Students in several of the experimental schools were asked to submit statements of opinion related to issues in six designated areas: Democracy, Economic Relations, Labor and Unemployment, Race,

[8] Eugene R. Smith and Ralph W. Tyler, *Appraising and Recording Student Progress*. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1942, 550 pp.

[9] This book is a rich source of ideas for appraising student growth in all phases of secondary education. No brief treatment of any phase of it can do it justice in interpreting the help it affords for improving techniques of evaluation.

Nationalism, and Militarism. In addition, students submitting statements were asked to indicate the issues that seemed likely to provoke the strongest conflict of opinion. From several hundred statements of issues, reduced lists were made that formed the basis for the development of the measuring instrument. An example of such a reduced list with respect to the area of democracy included: [10]

1. Civil liberties such as freedom of speech, the right to trial by jury, and the right to vote.
2. Equality of opportunity and responsibility in a democracy, such as equality in economic and educational opportunities, and equality of responsibility in carrying the financial burden of government.
3. Manner of appointing and electing government officials and representatives.
4. Functions and responsibilities of democratic government in promoting general welfare, such as providing medical care and social security for all.
5. Freedoms and responsibilities of citizens in a democracy.
6. Influences of social and economic classes on democracy.

In relation to issues such as these, effort was made to develop a measuring instrument that would discover (1) whether increased understanding of a social problem developed ability and willingness to make correct decisions with respect to an increasing range of social issues; (2) the direction of student beliefs in terms of liberalness and conservativeness; and (3) the consistency of students' beliefs. The instrument developed made provision for students to react to such statements as the following: [11]

In the area of democracy:
Complete freedom of speech should be given to all groups and all individuals regardless of how radical their political views are. (A, Liberal; D, Conservative; U, Uncertain)[12]

[10] *Ibid.*, p. 211.

[11] *Ibid.*, p. 216.

[12] A—agree; D—disagree; U—uncertain. Although no effort was made to define the terms liberal and conservative specifically, the use in this examination followed a pattern similar to these categories:
Democracy—liberal tended to endorse free speech, democratic processes; conservatism approved restrictions upon these privileges.
Economic Relations—liberal position favored government regulation of public utilities; conservative position favored policy of economic individualism, laissez faire, and the preservation of the profit system.
Race—liberalism endorsed equality of all for social, economic, and educational opportunities; conservative position accepts the inherent supremacy of the white race.

guidance to adapt guidance to classroom situations. Much is already known of methods for helping groups of individuals to study themselves in relationship to their vocational choices. By using investigations that students themselves may help to conduct and by employing the technique of group discussion, it is possible to aid students to identify the pertinent facts that must be taken into consideration before making decisions. Group tests also may be made for the purpose of gathering additional data.

Teachers are discovering that the interpretation of test results can be carried on effectively in group situations as long as the discussion is concerned with the general implication of various test scores. It is possible to achieve just as effective results and to save valuable time for the teacher by group discussion of the results of tests measuring aptitude, vocational interests, achievement, emotional maturity, and personality. This procedure may be followed by brief interviews in which students are given information relative to their individual test scores. Inasmuch as the student already has learned how to interpret the results from the general class discussion, individual interviews can be shortened to as little as five minutes in length, as contrasted to the forty or sixty minutes usually required in individual counseling.

Another adaptation of the individual counseling approach to groups is that of using group thinking as a means of recognizing factors pertinent to the solution of a problem that is faced by several members of the group. This procedure can be carried on without embarrassment to those who face the problem under consideration since no identification is made unless the individual student so desires. Some of the advantages of this procedure over the individual interview approach can be seen in the value of group members working co-operatively to discover the critical elements in a situation that must be faced in making a choice. While working together, students learn firsthand the advantages of co-operation in the process of analyzing the related aspects of a problem, of gathering pertinent data, of organizing information in terms of their own personal interests, and of making choices and accepting the consequences of choices made.

Not all individual counseling situations can be maneuvered in this manner into a process of group guidance. This procedure is most successful when the problem under consideration concerns most of the members of the group. However, some highly personal problems of adjustment continue to require the attention made possible by the individual interview; some need the attention of a specialist. The group approach to analyzing common

problems, however, will reduce the number of times the individual interview must be employed and will help students to develop their capacity for independent action and self-direction.

A guidance procedure that is already adapted to group instruction is that of the socio-drama. This technique permits groups of individuals to express their actual feelings toward each other and with respect to environmental influences. Its value in teaching is its effectiveness as a device enabling the classroom teacher to help all members of a class group maintain wholesome adjustment to each other.

The development of socio-grams of class groups is a technique available to the teacher as a means of discovering students who need help. It is relatively easy to identify isolates by asking members of a group to respond to such questions as, Who is your best friend? To whom would you go for help with an assignment? With whom would you most like to work on committees? Whom would you choose as a companion for recreation? A group can study its own social composition in order to discover needed changes and for the purpose of planning group activities designed to change the structure of the group.

The techniques now being developed by experiments in group dynamics are readily adaptable to group situations in school. A principal purpose of these experiments is to develop techniques by which groups may study themselves and the quality of their interaction.

Relating education to immediate and future personal needs. The major emphasis in secondary schools is general education. Our concept of general education, therefore, determines to a considerable extent how we teach.

Two theories of general education will be explored briefly, with respect to their influence upon the type of teaching. As long as general education is thought of as a process of transmitting verbally the cultural heritage of the past to new generations, it will be impossible to develop teaching extensively from a guidance point of view.

In such a setting, the student is afforded few choices, since the significant cultural developments about which he must learn have already been established. His job, therefore, becomes one of learning the material that is set before him by the teacher. Under such conditions the teacher will be unable to concern himself about the needs, interests, problems and individual differences of each of his pupils. Few opinions can be permitted in the learning process; as a result, choices are impossible and guidance is unnecessary.

Freedom of speech should be denied all those groups and individuals that are working against democratic forms of government. (D, Liberal; A, Conservative; U, Uncertain)

In the area of economic relations:

Since the welfare of a whole nation depends on its natural resources, their use should be subject to public control (A, Liberal; D, Conservative; U, Uncertain)

Those who own oil wells, coal mines, and other natural resources should be allowed to operate them as they think best. (D, Liberal; A, Conservative; U, Uncertain)

In the area of race:

It is all right for Negroes to be paid lower wages than whites for similar kinds of work. (D, Liberal; A, Conservative; U, Uncertain)

The same wages should be paid to Negroes as to whites for work that requires the same ability and training. (A, Liberal; D, Conservative; U, Uncertain)

These sample items from three of the six areas illustrate the method employed in obtaining information relative to the attitudes of students on critical social issues. Several studies to determine the validity of this Scale of Social Beliefs, as the instrument came to be called, revealed the total score for the test to be somewhat higher than scores for each of the six subareas.[13] Except for the scores on consistency by areas, which were found to have such low stability that they could be used only to designate extremes, the reliability of this instrument proved sufficient to warrant its use in diagnosing student attitudes relative to social beliefs in these areas.

Another significant contribution was made to the appraisal of social competencies by the National Society for the Study of Education in the publication of Part I of its forty-fifth yearbook, *The Measurement of Understanding*.[14] This report had as its major purpose the placing of emphasis upon "methods of appraising the student's readiness for intelligent behavior in normal situations which engender a feeling of need for purposeful action." [15] Stressing the importance of teaching for and appraising growth in un-

[13] In one study which utilized the Kuder-Richardson formula, the coefficients for over 600 students ranged from .79 to .86 on liberalism for the different areas, with a total score of .95. For conservatism, the range was from .72 to .81 in the different areas, and .93 for the entire test. The uncertainty scores ranged in reliability from .79 to .85 on the separate sections, with .96 resulting for the total. p. 228.

[14] National Society for the Study of Education, *The Measurement of Understanding* (Forty-Fifth Yearbook, Part I). Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1946, 338 pp.

[15] *Ibid.*, p. vii (Editor's preface by Nelson B. Henry).

derstanding, nine principles for obtaining evidence of understanding were proposed: [16]

1. In every subject-matter area there are available at present many well-known procedures for the evaluation of understanding.
2. To provide evidence of understanding, evaluation situations must contain some, but not too much, novelty.
3. Understanding is of many kinds and degrees, and evidence is to be sought on appropriate levels.
4. Procedures employed to measure understanding should provide evidence of appreciation of primary reality.
5. Since intelligent behavior in many situations involves the ability to recognize the relevancy and sufficiency of data, evidence of this ability should be sought.
6. Evidence of understanding is to be found in originality of performance on the part of pupils.
7. Evaluation procedures should be selected with due regard for the likelihood of their evoking evidence of the kind of understanding that is required.
8. In obtaining evidence of understanding, care should be exercised to insure that the pupil's response reflects his actual level of understanding.
9. The program of evaluation should be planned so as to foster the development of habits of self-appraisal on the part of pupils.

Specific suggestions with respect to ways of measuring understandings are made for the following subject-matter fields: social studies, mathematics, science, language arts, fine arts, health, home economics, agriculture, industrial arts, and vocational-technical education. The next suggested steps proposed by the committee responsible for the production of the yearbook include the following: [17]

1. There must be a more general acceptance of the school's responsibility for developing and measuring growth with respect to outcomes which involve understanding—a more general acceptance together with a real attempt to do something about it.
2. The understandings that are essential to each subject-matter field need to be identified and to be made intelligible to teachers.
3. Teachers' confidence in their ability to assess evidence of understanding, a process that is necessarily subjective, must be strengthened.
4. Teachers must learn what kinds of behavior signify the attainment or the non-attainment of outcomes that involve understanding,

[16] *Ibid.*, pp. 44–64.
[17] *Ibid.*, pp. 321–330.

situation are expected to transfer to different situations without loss of efficiency. Study of group dynamics has brought attention to bear upon developing new concepts of democratic leadership.

Leadership for planned change. The projected concept of leadership in a democratic group is essentially that of a "change-agent." As such, the leadership function is seen as a transition:[26]

From	To
The leader achieving in an area that has prestige for the group. (Based upon hero worship and discipleship.)	The leader achieving because he is able to help the group achieve what it wants through co-operative action.
The leader achieving because he is feared.	

Change comes about in any individual or group whenever given forces tend to create a condition of imbalance. For example, when a community becomes aware of unsanitary conditions that endanger the health and life of all or a portion of its members, it may become disturbed to the point of exercising unlimited effort to remove undesirable conditions. The factor that caused the imbalance was the awareness of the condition. The leadership involved was related to helping in the analysis of the condition and guiding the resulting action.

The concept of leadership as planned change is based upon the assumption that human beings are capable of and need to control the change processes that necessarily take place in group activities. It adheres to the premise that controlled change is more desirable since otherwise group achievements are constantly threatened with opposition and defeat by unforeseen and uncontrollable forces.[27] It is supported by the suggestion that change can be more satisfactorily accomplished when the relationship between group acts and consequences is thoroughly understood and controlled. The function of leadership is conceived in this setting as a method of helping groups achieve this end. Principally, such leadership is concerned with helping in:[28]

1. Assessing possibilities for change.
2. Detecting and organizing forces working for a given change.

[26] Ruth Cunningham and associates, "Leadership and the Group," *NEA Journal*, 37:502–503, November, 1948.
[27] National Training Laboratory in Group Development, *op. cit.*, p. 109.
[28] *Loc. cit.*

3. Removing or reducing resistance to change.
4. Evaluating the changes prepared and effected in terms of (a) the efficiency of the methods employed, (b) the human consequences of such changes, and (c) the values operating to control their direction
5. Stabilizing changed behavior at a new level.

The goals or "targets" of the "change-agent" or leader in facilitating changes in human relations have been identified as: [29]

1. Working with individuals (in a group setting) in helping them gain skill in diagnosing and solving problems of:
   a. Innerpersonal adjustment
   b. Interpersonal adjustment
   c. Effective group participation
   d. Strategic social action.
2. Working with teams or groups, helping them develop skill as groups in diagnosing and solving problems of:
   a. Member and group functioning
   b. Intergroup relations
   c. Strategic social action.

Factors that influence leadership. It is doubtful whether there is such a person as a "born leader." [30] Those who are characterized as leaders usually are individuals who have become adept at human relations or else have perfected the techniques of "manipulation" that permit them to control and direct the acts of others. Neither can we consider leadership to be a stable quality that will function equally well with different groups and in various situations.

Three major factors have been discovered to play an important part in determining the quality of leadership: [31]

1. The characteristics of a given leader will be determined by his personality needs and emotional tensions. One leader in the National Training Laboratory for Group Development was described partially as follows: [32]

> . . . a major developmental theme in his life has been concerned with the conflict between his passive dependency needs and his desire to assume the responsibilities of an adult. It is possible that the conflict had its origin in his early experiences of rejection and lack of encouragement by his father. The consequences of this feeling of rejection have been a persistence of the dependency needs (at a deeper

[29] *Loc. cit.*

[30] Kenneth Benne, "Leaders Are Made, Not Born," *Childhood Education,* 24:202–8, January, 1948.

[31] Morton Deutsch, Albert Pepitone, and Alvin Zander, "Leadership in the Small Group," *The Journal of Social Issues,* 4:31–40, Spring, 1948.

[32] *Ibid.,* p. 32–33.

and results. Its purpose in school situations is to promote growth and adjustment. Informal evaluation has the advantage of being immediately applicable to growth situations and may be used both by the learner and by his companions in the group of which he is a member. Formal evaluation is based on differences within a group and can be efficiently administered only by trained examiners.

The agents of evaluation consist of an external authority, peer-groups, the self, and a co-operating group. The last three can be depended upon with greater confidence for use in secondary schools with each being augumented, respectively, by the next-named type as the student progresses toward maturity. The object in the progressive selection of evaluative agents is eventually to establish the self and the co-operative group as the most dependable.

Evaluation is based primarily on observation—of undirected activities, during personal interviews, in critical situations, in terms of productions, or with respect to recorded responses. Observation, in such instances, is to be regarded as including all other forms of sensory experience as well as visual experience. Both unit and whole-response tests (so-called objective and essay types) are based on the subjective judgment of the person who constructs the tests, the difference being in the point at which subjectivity enters into the measurement process. Observations can be made more objective by training the observer and providing for careful systematic application of observational skills.

Standards of evaluation include absolute perfection, relative performance, and individual aptitude and growth. Utilization of both of the first two types tends to result in arbitrary classification of the results of evaluation. The forcing of scores made by students in small groups into the pattern for the normal distribution curve in order to assign marks illustrates one kind of injustice that is committed through reliance on standards of evaluation external to the learner.

Trends in evaluation are moving in the direction of appraising growth in the skills and understandings necessary for social competency. Out of our growing realization of the importance of evaluation and the increasing efficiency of improved techniques for appraising various essential aspects of growth that are related to the fundamental purposes of education, new criteria and more advanced principles of democratic enlightment are being developed.

Related Experiences

Arrange for groups to work on a project to be selected from the following or one formulated by their own members:

1. Make a plan for evaluating growth in such competencies as (a) critical thinking; (b) skill in communication; and (c) habits of mental and physical health.
2. Prepare an imaginative diary account which will furnish a basis for evaluation of growth in (a) respect for and appreciation of the worth of others; (b) concern for the welfare of all; and (c) provision for participation by all members of a group.
3. Visit a secondary school for the purpose of observing (a) self-direction in thought and action; (b) self-discipline in terms of personal and group values; (c) willingness to accept responsibility for group activity.
4. Analyze the programs of evaluation to which you are subjected in college to determine which of the principles suggested in this chapter have been followed.
5. Form judgments concerning the improvement of yourself and your classmates in (a) management of learning experiences; (b) development of meanings and concepts; (c) techniques of group discussion; and (d) co-operation with others in general school activities.
6. Write a short critical paper on the role of objective tests in measurement and evaluation. Submit mimeographed copies to members of the class for criticism and suggested improvement.
7. Examine ten standardized tests to determine their usefulness in furnishing data that are valuable in improving learning experiences.

Suggested Readings

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OSBORN, JOHN K., "Marks or Evaluation?" *Michigan Educational Journal,* 21:63–65, October, 1943.

REMMERS, H. H., AND GAGE, N. L., *Educational Measurement and Evaluation.* New York: Harper and Brothers, 1943, 580 pp.

General education, however, is increasingly being thought of as a process of helping young people to develop competence for citizenship. As such, it is concerned with such factors as the adjustment of each individual, the development of habits of co-operation within a group, a concern for the common welfare of all, preparation for family life, and the ability to sustain one's self economically. Such a concept of general education, unlike the theory of transmittal of cultural heritage, must be closely correlated with the life of the student while he is in school and must be directly related to his anticipated vocational and professional choices.

When general education is concerned with the immediate environment of students and also is related to their expected future vocational experiences, it must of necessity be adapted to their needs and their problems. It must also be concerned with helping young people make vocational choices that will help to define the goals toward which teaching and learning are directed.

In this type of general education, teachers in all subject areas have the responsibility of relating the educational experiences in their courses to anticipated careers. The number of vocations that a given class group selects is naturally large. Good instruction requires that the teacher face this problem and aid each member of the group to adapt the best available learning experiences to his present and future needs.

Teachers can approach teaching from the point of view of guidance. On either hand, from guidance specialists and from teachers, one may hear arguments to the effect that the theory and practice of guidance is so unrelated to the theory of teaching prevalent in our schools that it is unrealistic to expect all teachers to understand and accept for teaching a guidance point of view. Admittedly, not all teachers will be able to provide guidance for highly complicated cases, and a few may never make the adjustment to a guidance point of view. But as pre-service and in-service education of teachers increases emphasis on the need of understanding the individual student more and more, teachers will begin to relate guidance more directly to the instructional process.

We may accept the belief that teachers have the ability to understand and utilize the theory and techniques of guidance but still feel that the development of teaching as guidance is an unrealistic goal in terms of teacher loads. Evidence on every hand supports this position. Teachers are required to teach too many students daily, too many students in one class group, and must devote too many hours to educational work outside their regular classroom assignments.

A major reason why teachers are overloaded is found in a point of view toward teaching that very largely has given direction to the organization of instruction in our public schools. When teaching is conceived as a process of transmitting information from the teacher to the student via the lecture method, it makes little difference whether twenty or fifty pupils are permitted to listen to the teacher as he lectures. If all members of a class are required to participate in identical learning experiences at the same time and rate, it is reasonable to assume that the teacher can give instructions to many as easily as to a few. To the extent that education is allowed to become concerned mainly with verbalization of knowledge and the memorization of established facts and dogma, the teacher may reasonably be expected to center his attention on forcing students to learn en masse.

An additional point of view that has been commonly held by secondary school teachers and one that has contributed to the size of teaching loads is the belief that teachers should be subject-matter specialists to such an extent that they be restricted to only one field. The practice in planning educational experiences for secondary school students that has resulted directly from this notion has been a high degree of departmentalization. Teachers have been forced, as a consequence, to teach from four to six different groups of pupils daily. Often the total number of students with whom a high school teacher has contact in a single day reaches as high as 175 to 200. Add to this picture the fact that teachers often change class groups each semester, and we see that teachers are forced, by the practice that springs from this point of view toward teaching, to serve so many young people and to change class groups so often that anything but a superficial acquaintance with individual students becomes almost impossible.

The best evidence that secondary school teachers are subjected to excessively heavy teaching loads as a direct result of overemphasis on patterns of teaching appropriate for large classes is found in the fact that teachers who have endeavored to provide other methods of teaching have not suffered so acutely, in terms of the size of classes. For example, teachers of home economics in many schools have limited the size of laboratory classes to as few as sixteen pupils. This has been possible largely because the teachers in this field have defined the type of laboratory teaching they desired to practice and have insisted upon small classes that are adapted to the type of teaching to be employed.

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School administrators have little difficulty in most communities in working with boards of education to restrict the size of home

economics classes, for they and members of their boards recognize that the type of individual approach in teaching desired will be impossible with larger classes. The same conditions prevail with other classes in many junior and senior high schools and junior colleges, such as those in industrial education, laboratory science, and art. The way in which many junior colleges limit the size of sections for freshman English in order that individual attention may be provided illustrates this condition. At the same time, in the same schools, teachers in other subject areas are teaching classes of forty to fifty pupils. The principal explanation, one that apparently is not altogether obvious inasmuch as it is overlooked by many teachers, is found in the fact that those teachers who follow a point of view that underemphasizes the importance of knowing and understanding the student and who aim mainly at compelling him to memorize established knowledge actually invite and encourage the economically expedient practice of increasing the size of classes.

By accepting and promoting a high degree of specialization in subject fields along with the consequent organizational practice of particularized departmentalization, secondary school teachers have walked into the bottleneck of overloaded classes. As long as teachers continue to support a point of view that leads them to think of themselves as specialists in only a single field, the practice of daily assigning several groups of pupils to each teacher cannot be avoided. In any school, even the most subject-matter conscious, teachers of courses designed for general educational purposes can reduce their loads materially by asking to be permitted to teach the same group of students in two or more subject fields during subsequent periods. By this simple procedure a teacher can reduce by half or more the number of groups of students met daily. Teachers can also reduce their loads and improve the contribution they make to young people at the same time by choosing to remain with the same home room groups for periods of two to three years.

Teachers often ask that their loads be reduced in order that they may improve the quality of teaching. Administrators and boards of education frequently suggest, on the other hand, that whenever the type of teaching procedure demands a reduction in load assignment, adjustment of the program to avoid such a development be undertaken. A beginning must be made somewhere. It is reasonable to assert that teachers must take the initiative in changing their approach to teaching before reductions in load can be assured. As teachers come to believe in adapting teaching

to the needs of individual pupils rather than in forcing pupils to adapt to teaching and as they begin to demonstrate that they are determined to teach in accordance with this belief, they will be able to convince their communities of the wisdom of making changes permitting all teachers to utilize a guidance approach in teaching.

Good Teaching Is Guidance

Teaching in secondary schools has been defined as *the practice of democratic leadership with developmental intent.* This definition implies that teaching is a process of guidance. Guidance, on its own account, may be regarded as a process of democratic teaching in respect to its utilization in typical school situations. Both guidance and teaching are concerned with developing a type of leadership well adapted to the theory of life that predominates in the situation in which instruction is being offered. Neither can exist to an optimum degree in a divergent type of social organization. This point is readily understandable when it is realized that the concept of guidance is so fundamentally democratic that it cannot be considered compatible with authoritarian concepts of life. It is to be expected that as teachers are successful in developing teaching procedures harmonious with the tenets of democracy, teaching and guidance will become increasingly more nearly synonymous.

The unity of teaching and guidance can be illustrated by an enumeration of the principles of democratic living from which their theory and techniques must take direction. Both good teaching and guidance:

1. Rely on the use of intelligence rather than force in the solution of problems;
2. Respect the moral rights and feelings of all and the dignity of each individual personality;
3. Believe in the basic right of each individual to share in the making of decisions that concern his personal welfare;
4. Accept the attainment of human happiness for all as the basis for judging effectiveness of social institutions and schemes of living;
5. Are based on attitudes of humanitarianism, on an interest in the other fellow, and on a feeling of kinship for others as necessary prerequisites to human happiness.

As teaching more extensively uses a guidance approach, it ceases to impose decisions upon or to determine goals for the

learner. Instead, it seeks to help each individual achieve goals that to him are important and meaningful within such frames of reference as his social group and his individual needs. Teaching, as a process of guidance, will help the learner to evaluate possible choices relative to the attainment of accepted goals and to predict the consequences of the decisions to be made. Thus, teaching motivates growth by showing direct relationships between desired goals and specific learning activities. In helping learners to choose procedures appropriate to the attainment of recognized goals, teaching renders assistance in the analysis of obstacles as well as aids in the development of understanding in other ways.

Teaching as a process of guidance. As teaching becomes more compatible with the principles of democratic living it adopts as a basis for its procedures certain characteristics that originally were associated only with the theory and process of guidance. To illustrate this point the following descriptions of teaching as a process of guidance were modified from statements prepared originally by Helseth and Stiles [4] to describe the function of guidance.

1. Teaching as a process of guidance recognizes the innate worth of each individual. In a democratic society the welfare and worth of the individual is the end for which social organization exists. The "state" can serve only as a means to this end. Man-made institutions exist for their contribution to man's welfare. The achievement of happiness, dignity, and respect for each and every individual presents the only reason for the existence of social institutions. Teaching, like guidance, assumes responsibility for maintaining recognition of the worth of individuals; both, therefore, must seek to discover techniques by which such a function may be realized.

2. Teaching as a process of guidance makes allowances for the uniqueness of each individual. Although individuals are born equal in terms of basic human rights, each person possesses some differences that are unique. Whereas it is necessary in a co-operative society to promote certain common attitudes and skills—attitudes of mutual respect, skills of communication, of co-operation, etc.—it is highly essential that certain unique differences in people be preserved. A democratic society encourages, for example, the development of differences in creativeness, in personal tastes and habits, in vocational skills, and in interests. Furthermore, it

[4] These statements were adapted from criteria suggested as appropriate for guidance by Inga Olla Helseth and Lindley J. Stiles, *Supervision as Guidance.* Williamsburg, Virginia: The Virginia Gazette Press, 1946, p. 71.

respects differences in religious beliefs, racial background, and cultural characteristics, and it incorporates them within the scope of social interaction. Teaching seeks to help each individual develop and exploit his individual differences within the framework of democratic ideals.

3. *Teaching as a process of guidance is directed toward the continuous integration of the individual personality within a modifiable environment.* Happiness in a democratic society is achieved both through a process of continuing adjustment to the ideals accepted by a social group and through the modification of conditions within the environment to meet the needs of individual members of the group. Teaching as a process of guidance functions in helping the individual make adaptations to the demands of his culture; but it also searches for ways of helping the individual through co-operation with others to make adaptations of the culture to the end that it better meets the needs of an increasing proportion of the members of the group. When social customs no longer meet the needs of a group they are modified or discarded. A growing culture is ever alert to the needs for continually shaping the environment in the direction of the ideals of the group and of the needs of its individual members.

4. *Teaching as a process of guidance recognizes that growth and development are a continuous process of experiencing vital relationships.* Growth is the result of experience. But in order for experience to contribute to improved capacity for self-direction, problem-solving, and adjustment, it must be vital and meaningful to the learner. With each individual growth takes place continuously in relationship to significant efforts to make adjustments to environmental forces. Both teaching and guidance seek to help the individual select and interpret experiences to the end that acceptable goals may be attained.

5. *Teaching as a process of guidance strives to obtain adjustments in environmental factors, including adults and institutions, as well as in the learner.* Learning is generally thought to be a process of making behavior changes in terms of the demands of fixed environment. Young people are expected to perfect patterns of living which have been employed by their parents. In this way a given type of social organization is perpetuated. A democratic society, however, recognizes the value of social practices only in terms of their contribution to the improvement of the welfare and happiness of individuals within the social group. Consequently, it presents evidence of continual search to discover better ways of living.

whereas those who provide so-called educational guidance often acquire this function as a result of responsibilities assigned within the administrative organization of the school.

It was soon recognized that along with vocational and educational guidance young people need help in solving numerous other problems of adjustment at various stages of their growth. The help that teachers, social workers, guidance specialists, and psychologists give youth toward the solution of their adjustment problems is now referred to in professional literature under such topics as personal guidance, social guidance, economic guidance, guidance for leisure time activities, moral and religious guidance and—for older youth—family guidance.

More than ever before, leaders of the guidance movement desire that guidance be considered and administered as a unified process. It is pointed out that guidance is concerned with the growth of the whole individual, that the problems faced by the individual have a multiplicity of impending elements that concern both the person and his environment. It is argued that all the various isolated approaches to guidance are, in reality, only one-sided efforts to deal with extremely complicated problems of adjustment. The individual cannot be successful in a given vocation, for example, if he is emotionally maladjusted or if his worry over family problems acts to decrease his efficiency. Educators who are attempting to develop a concept of guidance that includes a complete and composite responsibility for the individual have repeatedly emphasized that guidance must be provided to further the *total* growth and adjustment of individuals.

The major emphasis in guidance, as it is being advocated today, is placed on the promotion of self-determination or self-guidance and on the function of guidance being mainly a matter of enabling individuals to make intelligent decisions on their own account. Most of the definitions of guidance, some of which are quite complex, can be stated simply by saying that *guidance is a process of helping individuals and groups of individuals to make choices relative to recognized problems, the solution of which will lead to continuing adjustment.*

Contributions of guidance to teaching. The guidance movement has made major contributions to teaching by placing emphasis on certain points of view and techniques of dealing with individuals.

1. Guidance has steadfastly defended the right of the individual—the counselee—to make his own choices. Guidance has main-

tained that choice is the individual's right and responsibility. A guidance counselor provides assistance in helping the counselee identify the factors that bear on choices and the probable or anticipated consequences of his choice. Perhaps no other principle is so closely related to education for democracy. Just as an authoritarian society must train its youth to follow without question the orders of those in authority, a democracy must help its youth to learn to think and to decide courses of action for themselves.

2. The refusal of those concerned with guidance to endorse the giving of "advice" and "direction" has expanded and improved the concept of democratic leadership.

3. The study of adjustment carried on in the field of guidance in relation to mental health and emotional balance has thrown considerable light on the degree to which authoritarian and arbitrary patterns of teaching in secondary schools actually contribute to maladjustments. In guidance the paramount concern is with the maintenance of adjustment. Whatever else guidance does, it aims at helping the individual preserve his personal integration and his self-confidence in relationship to his social setting.

4. Leaders of the guidance movement have sought to develop techniques of individual counseling and group guidance that permit students to be partners in educational activity.

5. The point of view that the individual should be permitted to make decisions in terms of his goals is a healthy step away from educational situations in which teachers make decisions for students related to goals recognized only by teachers. The person supplying guidance assists in the clarification of problems. He helps in the discovery of related problems and calls attention to possible considerations that may have been overlooked. But the factor that determines whether a given issue or situation represents a problem is the recognition and acceptance of it by the person who is responsible for making the choice.

6. Guidance has placed maximum emphasis on the correction of causes of maladjustment rather than on the treatment of symptoms. Such an objective decreases the emphasis on discipline (in the sense that the term implies the external control of behavior or the punishment of those who deviate from the accepted behavior of an institution), and frees the guidance worker to co-operate with the student in analyzing causes of behavior problems.

It is in such points of view and techniques of human relationships that teaching finds companionship with guidance. Teachers are finding that as they develop methods of teaching adapted to

When it is evident that given customs, techniques of living, or social institutions are no longer contributing to the improvement of the welfare of the majority of individuals, such a society discards them in favor of better patterns of life and more democratic institutions. By such change and growth the democratic way of life is improved.

6. *Teaching as a process of guidance aims at helping individuals to make choices that will lead to further development.* Learning becomes possible when individuals grow concerned or curious about a problem to the extent that they consciously seek its solution. If the accumulated product of efforts to solve problems and the discovered solutions become a part of an individual's pattern of action and if consequences modify behavior, learning results. The solution of one vital problem, however, leads the individual to be conscious of many related problems. Since no individual has the time and energy to attack all of the problems of which he is aware, choices must be made. Not only must individuals make choices relative to the problems to be solved but also make choices concerning the step-by-step progress toward anticipated solutions. Both teaching and guidance aim at helping individuals make necessary choices in terms of their consciously recognized goals.

Guidance practices in teaching. The teacher who identifies teaching with guidance will:

1. Begin with each person at the point to which he has advanced in terms of ability to solve problems, competency in self-direction, level of interest, and degree of competence for democratic living.
2. Lead each pupil through step-by-step progress toward goals that to him, the pupil, are recognized as desirable and worthwhile.
3. Provide leadership in stimulating interactions and adjustments among pupils within the class group and among other groups within the school and community.
4. Be sensitive to overt behavior, keen to see symptoms in relation to trends in development, analytical in searching for causes that underlie symptoms of behavior.
5. Help the pupil to develop power in self-evaluation and self-direction.
6. Help pupils obtain all of the information and experiences that are necessary and significant for making intelligent decisions.
7. Recognize the pupil as a person in the process of con-

tinuous development from one level of understanding, accomplishment, and insight to another.

8. Realize that the acceptance of specific goals by a given individual is determined by a unique variety of complex factors growing out of a discrete background of experience.

9. Accept the fact that no two people gain the same perceptions from what seems to be an identical experience.

10. Realize that the consequences of accepting goals and the making of related decisions must necessarily be a product of the selected course of action itself.

The Specialized Contributions of Teaching and Guidance

Although teaching and guidance are synonymous in terms of their approach to problems of human adjustment and with respect to the techniques employed in helping students solve their personal and group problems, each makes a distinct contribution.

Distinct responsibilities of teaching. Some of the responsibilities that are assigned to teaching but do not fall within the province of the guidance specialist include:

1. Creating a setting for growth and development. Teachers often attempt to modify existing settings in order to further learning. At times it is necessary to change institutional form in an effort to meet the needs of individual students. Guidance counselors may help to discover the need for some of the changes that are necessary, but if they are guidance counselors only, they may be unable to contribute to effecting such changes and putting them into operation. Teaching must be undertaken in a manner that is expressive of acceptance of the responsibility to create a setting in which effective learning may take place.

2. Administering school regulations. Teachers have the responsibility of administering such regulations as state attendance laws, school board rules, and regulations applying in individual schools. Although guidance workers may strive to help young people appreciate the wisdom or necessity for abiding by existing regulations, they are not the official agents of enforcement. Apart from teaching and guidance, teachers are expected to act as official agents for the administration of many regulations related to public education. The burden imposed by these additional duties may limit or interfere with teaching to a considerable extent.

3. Control of student conduct. In every kind of social organi-

zation certain officials are charged with the enforcement of rules of appropriate conduct. In the home this responsibility falls upon the parents; in school, teachers must assume responsibility for maintaining order. Although teachers attempt to fulfill this responsibility by means of procedures that are basically democratic and representative of acceptable guidance procedures, this is, nevertheless, a type of responsibility not commonly associated with guidance. Most communities expect the teacher to maintain a high level of control of student conduct within the school and as long as effective management is maintained, little regard is shown for the procedures employed.

4. Supervising extraclass activities. Teachers have the responsibility of helping students plan assembly programs, conduct clubs, raise funds, produce entertainments. They chaperone parties and dances and other social events; and teachers must serve as class sponsors and help plan special events such as commencement programs and various types of formal and informal meetings with parents.

5. Organizing for effective learning. One of the major responsibilities of teaching is that of organizing a group for effective learning. Teaching demands good organizing ability. The problems involved in developing learning experiences that will meet the needs and interests and levels of capacity of all members of a class demands of the teacher the ability to provide effective leadership in the role of an organizer.

6. Recording and reporting student progress. Teachers are required to make analyses of the growth of their students and to record their judgments and interpretations for future use. They must also report to parents periodically a summary of their appraisal of individual progress.

Distinctive functions of guidance. Guidance, like teaching, assumes certain responsibilities that are not likely to be performed as integral aspects of the teaching process. Reasons why such functions fall specifically under the province of guidance vary. The most common reasons are that (1) teachers do not have the time required for certain responsibilities of guidance, and that (2) teachers lack the necessary professional preparation for some of the technical functions of guidance.

1. Preparation of case studies. Specialized guidance workers are usually the only members of the school staff who possess the background and the time to conduct intensive investigations of complicated problem cases. Teachers are able to study closely

most of their pupils, but they are frequently confronted with problems in human adjustment that require the help of a guidance specialist who can bring a broader professional preparation and extensive time for study to bear upon the solution of the problems. Such cases should be referred to guidance specialists who can make their findings available to teachers in order that they in turn may know better how to help their students.

2. *Provision of clinical guidance.* Certain problems of adjustment require the service of numerous trained specialists. The clinical approach permits the service of doctors, psychiatrists, counselors, case-workers, testing experts, and the like, to be focused on the individual. Youths whose problems have become so complicated that frustration, emotional disturbance, or personality disintegration have resulted need more help and technical therapy than can be provided through the process of teaching. Teachers usually are unable to treat such cases; therefore, they must refer them for clinical study.

3. *Administration and interpretation of certain tests.* Guidance specialists are called on to administer and interpret tests that do not have common application for classroom learning. Such tests usually are administered only to individuals who have special problems. Tests of special dexterity, individual tests of achievement and mental capacity, and tests of emotional adjustment fall in the category of the guidance specialists.

4. *Compilation of occupational information.* The guidance worker has the responsibility of gathering information relative to vocational opportunities within a local community, a function that normally is not performed by teachers. The process of assembling the information and making it available to classroom teachers and to teacher-counselors can be undertaken successfully only by those who have the time, interest, and experience in analysis of occupational information.

5. *Research related to the general needs of youth.* In each school system there is need for assigning someone the responsibility of studying the pupil population of the community. Such investigations have as their major purpose that of identifying the needs of youth in the locality concerned and of evaluating the extent to which programs of education and guidance are successfully meeting the objectives for which they were planned. They are often concerned with such information as the prevalence of maladjustment among students, the rate of drop-outs from the secondary school, and the delinquency ratio existent within the

community. Responsibility for conducting such research is usually assigned to guidance specialists, but the data collected generally are made available to all teachers in order that teaching may be adjusted in terms of the evidence of need.

6. Placement. The organized placement service in most secondary schools is carried on under the direction of the guidance specialists.

7. Follow-up. Upon the guidance specialist falls the responsibility of conducting follow-up investigations to determine how effectively young people adjust to experiences after they are out of school. Information gained from such studies is used by the secondary school staff in planning for curriculum revision, counseling, and improving placement service.

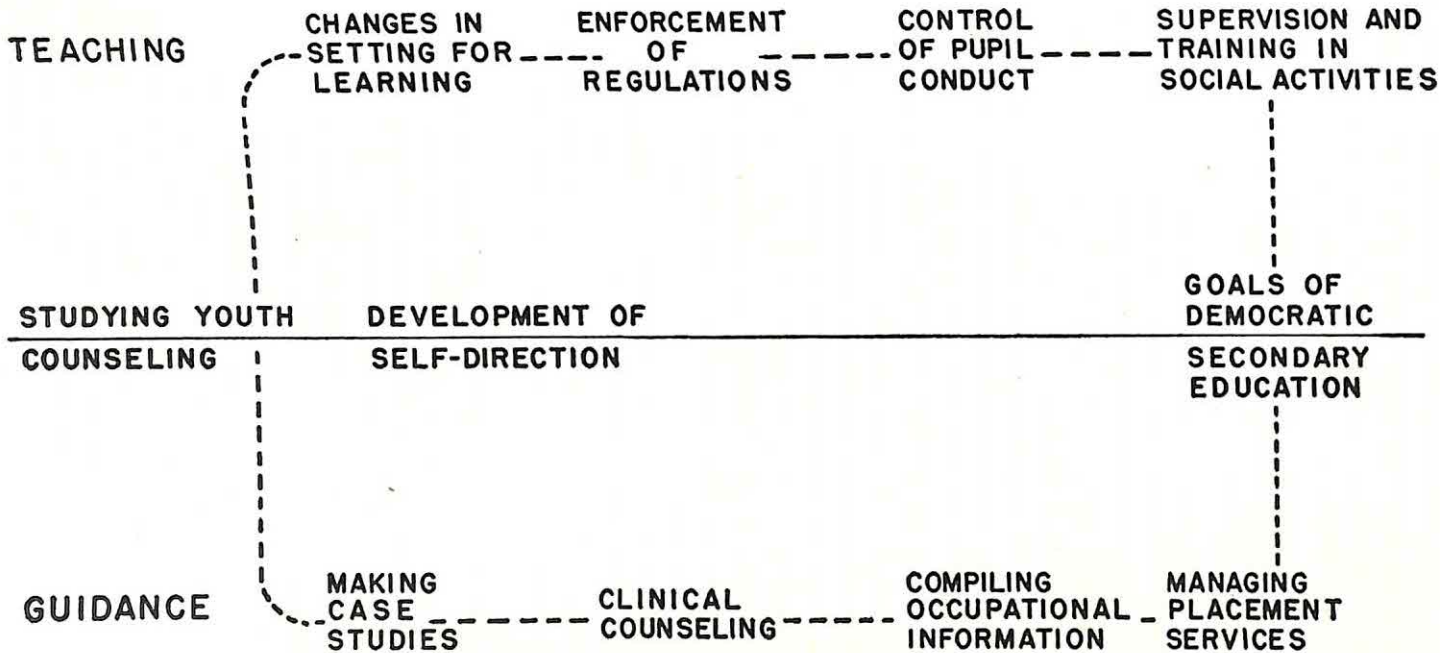
The relationship between the specialized responsibilities of teaching and guidance in the secondary schools is illustrated in Figure 10. It will be noted that both functions are concerned with the same goal. For the most part both teaching and guidance exist as one and the same process within the framework of the program of secondary education. Certain functions are distinct enough, however, to focus emphasis on the need for providing specialists in guidance in any secondary school, even though the teaching provided by the school in itself represents guidance to a large extent.

Role of the teacher-counselor. Teachers who are guidance conscious and well acquainted with the theory and practice of guidance will combine naturally and normally the functions that are commonly thought of as teaching and counseling. Since, in teaching, the entire approach is that of helping students learn to make choices related to recognized problems in terms of consciously accepted goals to the end that learning or adjustment may be furthered, the teacher will perform guidance whenever he teaches. The classroom teacher will need to utilize the professional services of specialists in guidance in order to become better trained for counseling. The teacher should collaborate with the guidance specialist in solving complicated guidance problems that are beyond the professional scope of the teacher.

In many schools there will continue to be the need for teachers who serve as guidance specialists during the time they are not teaching. These people will be expert teachers and competent guidance counselors. Freed from a portion of their teaching responsibilities, they will be able to provide skilled guidance to students who need special help. The teacher-counselor may even-

FIGURE 10

DISTINCT RESPONSIBILITIES OF TEACHING AND GUIDANCE



tually become a full-time guidance worker if his competence and professional preparation meet the requirements and provided there is need for additional full-time guidance workers.

It is thought by many who have studied programs of guidance in operation that it is ideal for the specialist in counseling also to devote a portion of his time to classroom teaching. In this way he is able to continue contact with the over-all school problems of youth and to maintain rapport with other teachers. Such a procedure, if followed generally, would result in an increased number of teacher-counselors and a possible reduction in the number of guidance specialists who never teach in the formal program of the secondary school.

The role of the guidance specialist. The guidance specialist is coming to be thought of more as a supervisor of instruction than as one trained narrowly in the techniques of testing and counseling. Secondary schools are recognizing that the function of the guidance specialist is that of serving as a co-ordinating resource in helping teachers, parents, and students learn how to solve their problems of adjustment. The guidance specialist can, therefore, help teachers improve their own competence for providing guidance, and he can also help direct the study of adjustmental needs of students. The specialist can conduct studies concerning the problems faced by youth in a school and community and help plan educational programs that take account of the results of such studies. He can initiate case studies, participate in clinical counseling, and perform other functions that cannot be handled effectively by the teaching and administrative personnel of the school.

Above all, the guidance specialist must be an expert in the theory and techniques of education and teaching. His major responsibility is that of helping teachers to develop teaching from a guidance point of view. In order to be successful he must be an educator first and a guidance specialist second. By helping teachers adapt guidance theory and techniques to classroom methods and distributing continuous guidance services to all youth at points where the need is greatest, the guidance specialist fulfills his major function—that of helping all youth to grow in the capacity to maintain healthful adjustments. The guidance specialist's first concern is that of helping teachers teach in such a manner that problems of adjustment do not occur, or if they do occur, that they are treated during their early stages. By helping teaching to become a process of guidance, the specialist serves to lessen the need for remedial counseling and therapy.

Summary

Democratic teaching is a process of guidance. The term guidance, however, has been used to identify a specialized movement that originally began with vocational guidance and continued to develop under such headings as, educational guidance, personal and social guidance, health guidance, and family guidance. Today the entire guidance movement seeks integration in relationship to its total concern for the individual. As guidance is understood more clearly in relationship to its responsibility to help clarify many of the complexities of human problems, it is coming to be defined as a process of helping individuals make choices in a manner that will lead to continuing adjustment.

Teaching has much to gain from the developing concept of guidance. From guidance it utilizes a point of view and techniques that are directly opposed to traditional teaching procedures that were based largely upon the doctrine of *direction.*

Important issues that must be faced in developing a guidance approach in teaching center around our faith in the ability of adolescent youth to make intelligent choices, the extent to which guidance and discipline are compatible, the function of general education in relationship to individual goals, the factor of teacher load, and the quality of teachers available for secondary schools.

The thesis that teaching is guidance is based on certain principles of democratic living that are identified closely with both teaching and guidance. Implications of guidance theory are shown by analyzing characteristics of teaching as a process of guidance. Guidance in both theory and practice suggests certain specific developments in theory of teaching and for classroom procedures.

Even though secondary school teaching is developed as a process of guidance, there will still remain distinct responsibilities to be assumed by both teaching and guidance. The teacher-counselor and the guidance specialist, seeking the same goal and working in close co-operation, will make distinct contributions to the needs of youth and to the purposes of secondary education.

As qualities of democratic leadership are increasingly used in teaching they more closely approach guidance in action. Conversely, as teachers employ techniques of guidance in teaching they more nearly achieve democracy in the educative process. As teachers develop techniques of working co-operatively with youth in the identification of objectives, in planning learning experiences, in evaluating consequences of action, and in re-defining goals, their teaching becomes increasingly a process of guidance.

Related Experiences

1. The following films will be useful in studying the relationship between guidance and teaching:

Counseling—Its Tools and Techniques (22 minutes: sound). Vocational Guidance Films, Inc., Carl F. Mahnke, Des Moines, Iowa. Shows a teacher-counselor at work in a typical situation. The most advantageous use of the tools and techniques of individual counseling is depicted.

Learning to Understand Children (Part I, 22 minutes; Part II, 22 minutes: sound). McGraw-Hill Test Film, 330 West 42nd Street, New York, N. Y. It is best to show both parts in one showing. This film shows an English teacher using the techniques of guidance in helping an emotionally and socially maladjusted girl of senior high school age. Detailed illustrations demonstrate how teachers may observe student behavior, study cumulative records, conduct personal interviews, visit homes of students, and formulate hypotheses related to the treatment of problem cases.

The Teacher as Observer and Guide (20 minutes: sound). Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N. Y. By presenting actual classroom practice, this film illustrates the importance of the teacher as observer and guide of student growth. Teachers are shown helping students improve their ways of solving problems, providing assistance to slow learners, and observing and stimulating the development of special talents.

While studying these films the student should keep in mind the contributions that guidance can make to teaching. Try to analyze the part teaching method plays in each of the approaches to guidance.

2. Study the curriculum of a near-by secondary school for the purpose of discovering the extent to which students are permitted to make choices relative to their educational experiences.

3. Make a "socio-gram" of your own class in order to examine the composition of the group. Discuss ways in which steps could be taken to reconstruct the existing group structure.

4. Interview three youths of high school age in order to discover the extent to which they are permitted to make choices relative to significant problems. Ask, for example, such questions as, Who decided which subjects you were to study this year in school? Do you decide for yourself how you will spend the money you earn? Are you permitted in any of your classes in school to help decide what you will study? These are only samples. Suggest others for the consideration of your teacher-education group. After interviews have been completed compare your findings with those of other members of your class.

5. Observe one or more secondary school teachers for the purpose of analyzing the extent to which the point of view and techniques of guidance are utilized. Watch especially for the opportunities provided students for choice making, efforts of the teacher to adapt institutional

form to the needs of individuals, a guidance approach to behavior problems, and the extent to which student differences receive consideration.

Suggested Readings

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HELSETH, INGA OLLA, AND STILES, LINDLEY J., *Supervision as Guidance.* Williamsburg, Virginia: Virginia Gazette Press (the Authors), 1946, 79 pp.

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Chapter 12

ESTABLISHING GROUP RAPPORT

Why have educators only recently become concerned about the contributions of group rapport to learning situations? . . . What practices in traditional secondary schools tend to inhibit the development of rapport? . . . Give instances in which research studies have supported the belief that group rapport increases effort and achievement in industrial and educational institutions. . . . Upon what bases does the establishment of group rapport rest? . . . List examples of characteristics of a cohesive group. . . . Which procedures can be used by teachers in establishing group rapport? . . . What implications do the consequences of group rapport hold for objectives of democratic education? . . . In what ways may the general pattern of teaching employed affect the quality of teacher-student relationships? . . . What criteria may be used in evaluating teaching in terms of group rapport?

Until the past decade, few attempts had been made to study the significance of rapport as a motivating factor in learning. Lack of concern about this important phase of human relationships in the teaching process is shown by the fact that in the article, "Methods of Teaching," in the *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*,[1] published in 1941, no consideration was given to rapport as an aspect of teaching. This omission is understandable since few research studies concerned with rapport had been reported up to that time. Successful teachers, however, have always recognized that students learn best when they are happy and in a congenial atmosphere. Awareness of this fact has led many conscientious teachers to try to understand the underlying forces that seem to influence learning in group situations. Efforts to help young peo-

[1] Walter S. Monroe and S. M. Corey, "Methods of Teaching," *The Encyclopedia of Educational Research*. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1941, pp. 725–730.

ple achieve happiness in school have led to an assortment of pedagogical theories ranging from the laissez-faire, "do-as-you-please" variety to ingenious attempts to sugar-coat the pills of authoritarian procedures.

Lack of concern for the importance of rapport can be attributed directly to a point of view toward teaching based on the assumption that the end justifies the means and that only in the end, or the achievement of academically respectable objectives, can happiness and personal satisfactions be found. Those who hold this point of view assume that since human beings gain their primary motivations from the need for self-preservation, they obviously desire, above all else, to excel their fellow students in competitive activity. This point of view placed the teacher in the position of subconsciously emphasizing individual competitiveness and individual progress as the avenues of self-preservation. And, since the goal of survival is readily acceptable to all, many have felt that efforts to force pupils to learn were justifiable in terms of the end to be served.

With competition serving as the fundamental source of motivation in teaching, most of the experimentation designed to appraise the effectiveness of various methods has been concerned with such factors as tests, marks, promotions, rewards, honor rolls, and various other types of external compulsion. Since the results of experimentation are always influenced more or less by the bias of the researcher and by imperfections in the experimental apparatus employed, it is readily understandable that research of this character can make only a limited contribution to evaluation of the function of rapport in the teaching process. Research designed for the purpose of revealing the relative effectiveness of different types of external rewards or punishments is confronted with considerable difficulty when effort is made to appraise such an intrinsic force as group rapport.

Perhaps the major factor with respect to our former lack of concern for the importance of rapport in the teaching process has been the extent to which instruction has been directed almost solely to the teaching of organized subject matter to individual students. Appropriate recognition has not been given to the fact that when associated with a group the individual is vitally affected by factors that influence the group as a unit. The tendency to teach groups of students in much the same manner that we would instruct one of two individuals continues strong today in many secondary schools. Pupils are still seated in rows, facing the

teacher and thus prevented from experiencing interaction with classmates that might lead to the development of rapport. Students remain isolated individuals even though they sit side-by-side in the same classroom. Recitations and lectures are directed toward individual pupils or toward the group as though it consisted of individuals who were exactly alike.

In many schools, teachers and other school officials have created groupings of students that discourage rather than encourage the development of rapport. Classifying students in ability groups is an example of such procedure. This type of grouping, which generally implies the segregation of students on the basis of ability as revealed by scores on intelligence and verbal facility tests, is so unnatural and undemocratic that the development of group rapport becomes extremely difficult or actually impossible.

Other secondary school practices that have inhibited the development and maintenance of group rapport include:

1. Arbitrarily assigning pupils to seats by alphabetical order.
2. Forbidding students to talk to each other without first obtaining permission from the teacher.
3. Organizing class discussion in such manner that all communication must be from student to teacher or from teacher to student.
4. Demanding that students work independently both in school and out-of-school for teacher-made assignments.
5. Evaluating progress on the basis of subject matter memorized.
6. Using "the curve" in grading students, thus emphasizing individual competition with fellow students for marks.
7. Utilizing rewards, comparisons, punishments, and other means of stimulating inter-group competition.
8. Purposely segregating students who are "too friendly" with each other, either by placing them in separate classes or by seating them apart from each other in the same class.
9. Insisting that all students conform to teacher-made and teacher-enforced school and classroom regulations.

The purpose of this chapter is to consider the significance of rapport as it relates to teaching; to examine the characteristics of rapport; to indicate the characteristics of a cohesive group; to suggest procedures for establishing rapport; and to describe its consequences. The hypothesis supporting the discussion that follows is that group rapport is an important aspect of the process of effective teaching and one of the major approaches to motivation.

The Concept of Rapport

Meaning of rapport. The concept of rapport as an important aspect of teaching method is based upon the definition that *rapport implies the establishment and maintenance of harmonious interpersonal relationships within a group that are characterized by respect, mutual confidence, understanding, and a sense of interdependence.*[2] The theory that rapport is important in teaching rests on the belief that individuals receive the strongest motivation for learning and action from wholesome relationships with others. It is related to the hypothesis that the need for survival that gives direction to all kinds of behavior causes the individual, as influenced by the complexities of a highly developed technological and social environment, to seek security in group relationships. To the degree that man utilizes his intelligence, he sees the futility of attempting to achieve self-preservation either in isolation or in competition with other human beings. He readily reacts to the danger of non-survival by associating himself with others in a group to gain strength that is inherent in co-operative effort. Inasmuch as man's intelligence helps him predict his future, his behavior is increasingly influenced by long-term goals. The adolescent's behavior is, at an early date, conditioned, for example, by his vocational aspirations, his hope of establishing and maintaining a home and rearing a family, and by his desire to live in harmony with his friends.

Since the achievement of long-term objectives demands co-operative group activity, individuals are most highly motivated when working in congenial relationships with people whom they like and with whom they can associate enjoyably. In general, individuals who succeed in an activity are those who are able to "work well with others." This ability is placed high on the list by personnel workers who are charged with the responsibility of selecting employees for various industries. The business man knows that if he can get his employees to work co-operatively together and with him, that is, if he can establish and maintain group rapport, he has a good chance to be successful.

The football coach also recognizes the motivational value of rapport. He knows that a team of inferior players who have achieved harmonious rapport—usually called "team spirit"—will have a good chance of defeating a team composed of much superior players who do not "pull together." He knows of no sub-

[2] Both Webster's *New International Dictionary*, Second Edition (Unabridged), and *The Dictionary of Education*, Carter Good (Editor), support this definition.

stitute for group rapport. No amount of individual rewards or punishments, coercion, or amount of expert technical coaching can compensate for the motivating force of harmonious interpersonal relationships within the team.

Evidence related to the importance of rapport. In recent years we have begun to learn how tremendously important is the quality of group rapport established in terms of growth toward democratic goals of education. Much of the evidence came at first, not from educational situations, but from industrial experimentation. Within the past decade several carefully controlled investigations have provided data concerning the development of rapport in industry that suggest methods applicable to educational situations.

One of the most careful and systematic studies, the results of which support the hypothesis that group rapport is one of the most important single factors in increasing industrial production, is an extensive investigation conducted over an eighteen year period in the Hawthorne Plant of the Western Electric Company.[3] Initially this study was designed to measure the effects of various working conditions upon the output of workers in an effort to determine the conditions necessary for maximum productive effort. It soon became evident that, with the inauguration of research efforts, production began to increase. But the surprising fact was that regardless of the changes made in the interest of the experiment, whether for better or worse, the amount of individual and group output continued to increase with each adjustment. As this increase characterized the experimental group, on which various changes in lighting, arrangement of machines, accommodations, and conveniences were being tried out, it was also true, surprisingly enough, for the control group which continued work as usual.

In the illumination experiment, the first conducted, both the control group and the experimental group increased their amount of production as the amount of light remained constant for the one and was increased for the other. When the illumination of the shops was decreased for the experimental group the output did not drop until the amount of light provided was decreased to .06 foot candles, an intensity about equal to that of bright moonlight.

In the experiments involving the working day, rest periods, and the work week, production increased when rest periods were in-

[3] F. J. Roethlisberger and W. J. Dickson, *Management and the Worker.* Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1940, 615 pp.

troduced for the experimental group. The length of the work day and of the work week were also varied and lunches were served to workers during their rest periods. Even when, in the interest of experimentation, former working conditions were restored, which meant returning to the forty-eight hour week and doing without rest periods and free lunches, the quality and quantity of the output was not reduced to its former level.

Analyzing the reasons why production seemed to increase regardless of the manipulation of working conditions, the experimenters realized what had happened. In order to conduct the research, effort was made to secure the co-operation of the workers. Interviews were held. Foremen and workers met together to discuss probable changes in working arrangements. Workers were asked their opinions relative to desirable plant conditions. Many of the conferences concerning problems faced by workers took place in the superintendent's office, and care was exercised to see that sympathetic treatment was accorded to the problems of all. Careful attention to the physical health of workers was given throughout the experiment. Medical examinations were given regularly and workers were frequently interviewed to discover the effects of experimental conditions upon health. Workers were constantly aware that their opinions and suggestions were being eagerly sought.

In conducting this experiment the investigators, without realizing it, had completely altered what had been previously a normally authoritarian working situation in which the boss told the employee when to work, how to work, and how fast to work. Whereas the experiments started out to record the effect of changes in the physical environment upon workers, they actually made radical changes in psychological factors that impinge upon efficient adjustment and production. In this carefully planned experiment there was also concern for personal relationships, a respect for individual workers, and a spirit of co-operation—all of which are the essential ingredients of group rapport. The workers came to have a feeling of importance because of the interest shown in them by the research staff, and they recognized that they shared importance in a significant co-operative enterprise. As a result of having developed a strong bond of friendship with the experimenters and with management as well as with each other, they increased their production in spite of changes in the physical environment even when such changes were distasteful. It should be pointed out that factors involving external rewards, such as rest

periods, free lunches, shorter days and weeks, were equally ineffective as determiners of output as compared to the development of group rapport.

Industrial strife between labor and management being as critical as it is, progressive business men are realizing more than ever the need for developing worker rapport. Perhaps the most successful efforts have been in making the worker a partner in the business enterprise with opportunity to share in the profits either through production bonuses or through dividends paid on stock purchased by workers. The most important consideration in the success of such plans, however, is the quality of rapport that is brought about between workers and management. When workers feel that they are "fellow workers" with their foremen and plant owners, when they recognize goals that are the common concern of all, and when they are encouraged to participate in the improvement of working conditions and production processes, they soon find themselves to be living in an improving atmosphere of mutual confidence, understanding, and co-operative activity that is more important to the success of production than almost any other factor. Industrial leaders are coming to recognize that the relation of the individual worker to his superiors and to his fellow workers is the most important factor in production motivation. Opportunity for the worker to participate in remedying unsatisfactory conditions or working procedures and the existence of a permissive atmosphere in which workers feel free to express their concerns relative to working arrangements are equally as important as financial incentives in maintaining high quality and quantity of production.

The study of social climates conducted at the University of Iowa is an example of a controlled experiment concerned with the effectiveness of different types of group associations upon members of several boys' clubs. This study is a pioneer effort in its field and represents an attempt to examine certain factors that are closely related to rapport in educational situations. No effort will be made to describe the study in detail since its description is available in educational literature, and reference has been made [4] to the descriptive film developed to depict the high lights of the investigation.

[4] Kurt Lewin, Ronald Lippitt, and Ralph K. White, "Patterns of Aggressive Behavior in Experimentally Created 'Social Climates,'" *Journal of Social Psychology*, 10:271–279, May, 1939.

Iowa State University, Film: *Autocracy and Democracy*. Ames, Iowa.

Boys of early teen age were organized into club groups under three kinds of leadership. The *autocratic* leader made plans for group and individual action and gave orders to each member of the group with respect to his responsibility. The *democratic* leader initiated co-operative identification of goals, group planning, group decision making and group evaluation. The *laissez-faire* leader let the group do just about as it pleased, offering help only when approached.

Results revealed that groups under both autocratic and laissez-faire leadership failed to develop a high degree of interpersonal relationships between members of the group or with the leader. In these two groups, in the absence of group rapport, co-operation was almost non-existent, and interest in activities was maintained only at a low level. In the democratic group, however, in which group rapport was developed and maintained, members enjoyed working together and shared working assignments readily. They worked as well in the absence of the leader as in his presence. This latter condition indicates that group rapport in educational situations may serve to maintain high level of effort and accomplishment without the exertion of continuous external direction by a leader.

Bases for Group Rapport

Development and maintenance of group rapport in a learning situation is based upon both personal and social qualities that are inherently a part of the needs and drives of all individuals.

Personal bases for rapport. All individuals possess certain personal qualities that cause them to seek fellowship and companionship. Efforts to satisfy personal needs and drives lead the individual naturally into co-operative and interdependent relationships with others.

1. Physical needs. All persons seek the satisfaction of fundamental physical needs, such as hunger, protection from heat or cold, sex, health. These needs may be satisfied in modern society only through co-operation with other individuals. Youth of high school age, for example, find a strong foundation for group rapport in the drive they feel to establish normal healthful relationships with members of the opposite sex.

They eagerly seek acceptance in a group that permits them opportunities to associate with members of the opposite sex. This drive and those of hunger, desire for shelter, and good health

represent common needs that cause human beings to seek to establish satisfying and co-operative relationships with those about them.

2. Need for security. The inherent need for security and affection compels human beings to search for companionable associations with others. Each individual needs to feel that he is important to others; he needs friends who share intimately with him his joys and sorrows; he needs to feel, also, that he is helping others as well as receiving assistance from them. When an individual is a member of a cohesive group he has a feeling of having gained security from being a part of an entity that is larger and stronger than himself. When groups lack rapport, individuals become insecure and seek associations within other groups in which their feeling of security can be maintained. It is natural for the individual to desire to devote much of his time and energy to attainment of the objectives of groups from which he derives the most rapport.

3. Desire for Recognition. Individuals feel the need for recognition or approval. They need the encouragement that results from the approbation of others. Their own confidence in themselves and their desire for action are based largely on the attitudes of other members of the group. Realization of this urge can be achieved most satisfactorily through membership in a group. The better the quality of rapport within a group, the more stimulating will be the satisfactions that result from the approval by the group of the efforts of its members.

These three personal traits—attainment of physical needs, search for security, and desire for recognition—not only furnish a basis for the establishment of a group rapport but actually function as drives toward its development. These drives are operative both in schools and in occupational situations as well as in the home, the church, social groups, and in the community. Whenever individuals share group relationships these personal needs tend to influence them to establish co-operative and interdependent associations with others.

Social bases for rapport. Certain social traits normally developed by all individuals provide impetus for the urge to achieve interaction with others in cohesive group relationships. Social bases differ from individual factors in that they are a product of an environment. The individual finds himself always a part of existing groups; consequently, he faces the necessity of adapting himself to group patterns of behavior. Social needs, therefore, are

acquired as a result of environmental influences. In a democratic society the following social needs or characteristics are among the most important that can be met or satisfied, in part, at least, by the establishment of group rapport.

1. Friendship. All human beings learn early in life to respond favorably or unfavorably to others. Happiness can seldom be maintained in any social group without the development of a favorable reaction to at least a few members of that group. These favorable reactions are called friendships. Individuals seek to establish friendships at all stages of their maturity. During childhood, friendships are likely to be quickly formed and quickly relinquished. As youth reaches adolescence it tends to place greater emphasis upon the security attained from the establishment of deeper and longer lasting friendships. Within every group the individual is concerned with establishing favorable relationships that will insure happiness and a feeling of belongingness. The desire to establish friendships furnishes a natural drive that helps to maintain group rapport.

As has been pointed out by Child [5] in his report of studies of children and adolescents in three different types of groups (clubs, schools, and institutional cottages), the group morale (rapport) is improved when groups are so arranged that members are in contact with persons whom they like and who like them.

2. Admiration. Students tend to admire classmates who excel in the characteristics and skills accepted by the group as important. Early adolescents admire the strong, the swift, and the skillful in physical activities. They often show admiration, also, for the unusual and the sensational. During middle adolescence, youth admire the physical appearance of each other and especially that of the opposite sex. At this age they frequently establish a quality of group rapport based upon similar admiration for "hero" characters. For example, young people who like a particular movie star may find that they are welded together in a group as a result of their mutual admiration for another individual.

Later adolescents develop admiration patterns more comparable to those held by adults. They admire those who accept responsibility within a group. They commonly search deeper than surface appearance for personal qualities as the object of admiration. It is not uncommon for them to continue "hero worship" with heroes changing from movie stars and G-men to political

[5] Irvin L. Child, "Morale: A Bibliographical Review," *Psychological Bulletin*, 38:393–420, June 1941.

figures and other individuals who have attained fame in one or more fields such as athletics, science, music, art, politics, business, or military service.

At all levels of adolescent development, admiration for the teacher may be a potent force in the establishment of group rapport. Although this may be a sound basis initially for developing a cohesive group, it is seldom sufficient to maintain rapport over a sustained period of time. A few highly gifted and famous college teachers are able to depend upon the admiration of their pupils as the primary basis for group rapport, but even in such instances the quality of maturity demanded of the student is on a comparatively low level. Wise teachers recognize the danger of depending on admiration for themselves as a means of maintaining rapport and seek to develop learning experiences that afford many and varied opportunities for students to develop mutual admiration for each other and to receive harmonious enjoyment of the total situation in which the group lives and works.

3. Altruism. Devotion to the interests of others, as opposed to selfishness, is a fundamental basis for the establishment of group rapport. As human beings become conscious of their interdependence with each other, as they strive co-operatively to achieve common goals, they develop an ethical concern for the welfare and problems of others. This attitude tends to promote the maintenance of group rapport. As individuals grow in their understanding of the interdependence of people they realize that no individual can be assured of his own well-being and that of his family without the co-operation of others. In order to enlist the help of others it is necessary to give help that is comparable to that received. The individual may, and perhaps does, develop altruistic feelings and habits as a result of working co-operatively to meet requirements that are associated with this urge for survival. Such behavior is a response to the realization that individuals survive only as members of groups.

Both personal and social bases give support to the establishment and maintenance of group rapport. Recognition of these inherent and acquired traits and the role they play in developing and maintaining rapport is an important factor in every learning situation.

If opportunity for the fulfillment of basic drives toward group rapport is denied adolescents by the type of teaching employed, the student will devote his major interests, energies, and as much time as possible to an attempt to establish congenial relationships with groups outside the school or to participate in forms of group

activity that are not in accordance with practices associated with such a policy. Herein, perhaps, lies the answer to the lack of interest many secondary school youth show in the formal educational experiences provided for them. They feel no fundamental interaction with other members of their class group, and they are not permitted to live together in the classroom in such a way that the establishment of group rapport is possible. Consequently, they seek to satisfy their personal and social drives for group rapport in extraclass or out-of-school groups.

Characteristics of a Cohesive Group

The main purpose of seeking to establish rapport is to attain a state of cohesiveness that makes it easy for the group to work as a whole instead of as individuals pursuing separate ways with complete disregard for the possible achievement of the group. In considering the importance of rapport it will be helpful to examine some of the characteristics of a group that has achieved cohesiveness. In a cohesive group, development of rapport involves careful consideration of certain essential qualities that are prerequisite to the selection of procedures designed to promote rapport. Some of the principal characteristics of a cohesive group are *unity, harmony, interdependence, co-operation, and shared responsibility for leadership.* Although these five characteristics do not exhaust the possibilities, they do provide a starting point for discussion and serve as guides to planning for the establishment of rapport within a group.

Unity. The term unity as used in this discussion means *oneness, singleness of purpose, accord.* It does not denote uniformity, absence of diversity, nor continuity without change. Unity of a cohesive group is that quality exemplified when members of the group act together in relationship to and as a result of common goals that are recognized and accepted. It does not mean that all individuals in the group act in the same way with a similar degree of effort. It does not imply the monotony that would exist if all members of a group were doing the same thing at the same time. Such a procedure may tend to destroy rather than promote the cohesiveness of a group. Uniform conformity to the performance of identical tasks by members of a group represents the opposite of unity that can be achieved only through voluntary action based on acceptance of particular kinds of participation. Such monotony exists in groups of secondary school youth taught under authoritarian control in which the teacher sets the tasks and urges

or compels all to follow directions exactly and to proceed at approximately the same rate toward an imposed goal.

Unity, in a democratic setting, implies accord or agreement as to purposes of the group, but it does not mean that uniformity of action is necessary or desirable. Diversity among members is recognized and utilized. Differences in background, capacity, emotional drive, skill, level of achievement, and intensity of interest supply variety that gives enjoyment and pleasure to the members as they work and live together.

Unity suggests that all members of a group be committed to respect for the ideas, attitudes and contributions of others; willingness to merge personal objectives with the goals of a group; acceptance of the decision of the majority; and a determination to "pull together." Unity is the quality that binds together the diverse elements within a group to make it cohesive.

Harmony. Harmony permits unity to exist among group members who differ in various ways. It means a kind of concord that results in a pleasing whole. Structurally it is an adaptation of the parts and the arrangement in a whole that results in agreeableness and attractiveness for *all* members of the group. The impossibility of achieving such a goal with all members of a group going their own separate ways without regard for what the others are doing is obvious. Harmony cannot exist unless individuals subordinate their personal interests and ambitions in order to promote a composite whole of group interests and goals that are satisfying to the entire group. It implies that at times individual members may have to yield some of their own particular notions in order to adjust to the activities of the group. They may also find it necessary to modify beliefs and practices to make them compatible with those chosen by the group as worthwhile and appropriate. The spirit of congeniality or community of disposition that is a necessary quality for a cohesive group is an important factor in harmonious action that adapts different attitudes, tastes, and dispositions into an agreeable unity of mutually enjoyable personal relationships.

It is not differences in people that prevent harmony from being established in a group. Individuals with extreme differences can live together in harmony if they are willing to respect the differences of others. When each individual is sympathetic to the needs and interests of other persons, a kindred spirit will exist in the group that makes possible harmony in arrangement, in action, and in the solution of problems common to all. Such a condition would be impossible in a group lacking cohesiveness—a

group actuated by dissimilar, discrete, selfish purposes and biased by the belief that certain human characteristics are superior to others. Lack of interest in the welfare of the group, selfish desire to attain one's own ends, and willingness to follow blindly the authority of a leader are major deterrents to group harmony.

Harmony exists in varying degrees of effectiveness while a group is becoming cohesive, but it is most obvious when a group has achieved the quality of cohesiveness that is necessary for the maintenance of group rapport. Perhaps more than any other quality, harmony leads to democratic action. Individuals who have attained a harmonious relationship with each other do not find it difficult to live democratically.

Co-operation. Co-operation denotes a state of working together, of operating jointly, of acting collectively. It implies sharing group participation with others, an important quality in group cohesiveness. Co-operation means more than working together now and then. It is not necessarily the same thing as getting together with other persons to do a job that all wish to do anyway. Instead, it implies voluntary acceptance of responsibility for action, a willingness to become active in helping to carry out the purposes of the group in growth toward common goals. It is an approach to living that places emphasis on sharing—in planning, in action, and in appraisal. Co-operation does not exist when one group of individuals share in the planning and appraisal and another group is permitted to share in carrying out the action required by the decisions of the first group. It can exist when all members of a group are privileged to share in all processes necessary to and including action.

In the traditional school, co-operation is taught as an ideal to be learned but with little opportunity to be practiced. Schools are frequently so organized that real co-operation is against school regulations. The tone of instruction in this type of school encourages unco-operativeness among students. Such familiar admonitions as "Do your own work," "You must not help others," "Don't show your corrected papers to anyone else," and "Do your homework without help" certainly cannot be reconciled with a desire to teach co-operation. Efforts to develop individual achievement apart from group goals, insistence that pupils work individually rather than in groups, and unwillingness to permit students to work on group projects of their own choosing provide further illustration of a type of teaching that prevents the development of co-operative attitudes and habits. Instead of fostering a spirit of co-operation, secondary schools of the past have

level) and a strong identification with the underdog. This identification has motivated him to direct his efforts toward social betterment. The core of his sincerely democratic ideology appears to be a strong emphasis on equality. He sympathizes with the oppressed and rejects discriminatory practices directed against minorities or against the underprivileged in general . . .

. . . his needs tend to make him nonagressive, nondominating, equalitarian and affiliative with peers and subordinates. He is sensitive to the feelings and wishes of others and is also sensitive to criticism. He wishes to please, to be considered a "regular guy," yet it is evident that there exists fairly strong autonomy needs which would make him react to being "pushed around" and which would make him wish to be free and independent of social approval and recognition. The general picture indicates that his autonomy needs are probably not as deeply rooted as his dependency needs.

2. *Leadership is determined to a considerable extent by a particular environment in terms of the leader's perception as well as group member understanding and attitude.* Security of the leader within a particular group and the acceptance by a group of the leader's contribution are important factors in determining quality of leadership. The leader described above would be expected to display sensitive, affiliative, nonaggressive, and tactful behavior in most situations. Even from the brief account of his personality one may predict, however, that under particular circumstances with certain groups in which he feels that he is being "pushed around," his behavior might well change to more aggressive action.

3. *The conception of the function of leadership held by the leader.* The point of view held toward leadership will contribute significantly to its quality in a given group. Much of the bad or authoritative leadership springs initially from misconceptions of leadership. Individuals who fundamentally believe that every group needs a "boss" and who are unable or unwilling to respect and trust to group intelligence fall easily into patterns of domination and submission.

Leadership processes that facilitate change. Certain activities and skills that tend to facilitate group action and change have been identified. It may be helpful to study the responsibilities and tasks assumed by the leader who was described in the preceding topic.[33] This leader saw his function to be the following.

1. Working with group members in developing plans that were agreeable to all instead of telling them what they were to do and how they were to do it.

[33] *Ibid.*

2. Making statements as a leader which were intended to guide rather than direct.
3. Being responsible for making frequent oral inventory of progress and for stating whether or not the group was staying on a path that would take it toward its goal.
4. Working with all group members on the task of evaluating how effectively they were working together. He saw it within his authority to stop the discussion long enough for the members to look at themselves as a working group.
5. Giving expert information only when it was pertinent to the situation and not when it was inappropriate.
6. Supporting the development of spontaneous shifts in activity by the group which were in line with the policy agreed upon by them.

The outline of skills for stimulating change developed by the National Training Laboratory in Group Development,[34] reproduced with slight modifications below, will be helpful in identifying the process areas and the specific skills and understandings needed by the leader who strives to function as a "change-agent" for group development.

Leadership Skills, Understandings, and Processes [35]

Process	Needed Skills and Understandings
Analysis by leader of personal motivations and of relationship to members of group.	1. Understanding own motivation in seeing need for change and desiring to bring about transition. 2. Understanding and working in terms of a philosophy and ethics of leadership and change. 3. Predicting the relation of one possible change to others and to those that may come later. 4. Determining possible units of change: (a) what seems to be needed; (b) what is possible. 5. Identifying size, character, and structural composition of group. 6. Determining the barriers, the resistance, the degree of readiness to change.

[34] National Training Laboratory in Group Development, *op. cit.*, pp. 111–113.
[35] *Loc. cit.*, pp. 111–113.

often given allegiance to the development of opposite characteristics in students. Teaching designed to help young people grow into effective citizens in a democratic society must help students to learn how to work co-operatively with each other. Without co-operation it is impossible to develop the kind of group cohesiveness essential to maintenance of group rapport.

Interdependence. Although a spirit of co-operation is a necessary and an important characteristic of a cohesive group, its presence does not mean that individual initiative is lost sight of nor that individual purposes and goals must be abandoned. In co-operating in group activities an individual's own qualities and desires may still be used while his personal needs and satisfactions may be held as inviolate. While attaining his own purposes, however, the individual may receive help from others in the group. He depends on others and in turn is depended on by those who help him. It is this interdependence that helps weld a group together into a cohesive unit.

When students recognize the value of interdependence among themselves and with their teachers, who in turn also depend upon the students, they become willing to work together to accomplish their individual goals. This realization leads each member of a student-teacher group to feel responsible for contributing to the efforts of the class. It helps individuals to be willing to permit the type and quality of their contributions to depend upon group needs and action. Without this quality of interdependence the cohesiveness of a group suffers, and the desired rapport cannot exist.

Shared responsibility for leadership. When the leadership in a group is exercised by a single individual, the situation becomes authoritarian or autocratic in character. When a few selected individuals are given responsibility for selecting group goals, planning courses of action in relation to aims, and instructing members of the group relative to necessary procedures, a despotic situation still exists. In groups that are controlled by a few individuals we may at times mistakenly assume that the actions of the few are acceptable to the group as a whole. Members may exhibit what seems to be a degree of cohesiveness in their willingness to follow the directions of the group leaders. Normally, however, individuals resent being compelled to follow the dictates of either a single leader or a group of individuals. On careful study, that which seems to be cohesiveness in despotic groups is actually compulsion based on the power and prestige of leaders.

In situations in which one leader controls a group, members

may gain a false sense of security and cohesiveness by sharing with others complete dependence on the leader. Blind obedience and the submerging of individual needs and goals to a course of action determined by a dictator may hold a group together temporarily in adversity or in the anticipation of a more bountiful future, but overemphasis on such qualities as obedience and subordination sooner or later interferes with the development of other qualities, such as unity, friendship, and co-operativeness, that are basic to the continuation of group rapport.

In the second type of group named, the kind that is controlled by a few selected individuals, the same type of factors that inhibit cohesiveness are also present. Even though leaders are elected by majority vote and when members of the group seem willing to follow the dictates of those elected, it is impossible for individuals to submerge completely their personal needs and desires in favor of the plans made by the official leaders. Unless elected leaders are sensitive to the wishes of those they represent, unless means are found by which all members of a group may participate in all phases of group activity, it is difficult to maintain group cohesiveness.

In a democratic society cohesiveness is supported by the provision for all to participate in what is normally thought to be leadership activities. Not all can lead at once, nor can all lead with the same degree of effectiveness. But every citizen should rightfully believe that he has a contribution to make to group effort and that he has the responsibility to assume his part in co-operative leadership. Rigid or crystallized categories of leadership responsibility are not compatible with democracy. In a democracy any individual may assume, at one time or another, in this group or that, the function of leadership. In so doing, every person may feel free to offer direction to his group, to contribute to further continuity of action, to try to persuade others to accept his point of view, and to judge the value of group processes. Through sharing responsibility for leadership each makes his full contribution to the group. To the extent that provisions are made for all to share in group leadership, both co-operatively and individually, group cohesiveness is possible.

The unified group. The principal objective in a democratic group must necessarily be that of unifying individual members with a variety of differences into friendly and wholesome co-operation with each other in the pursuit of common objectives. The effectiveness of a group can be measured in terms of its cohesiveness, its one-ness, its ability to stick together in the face

of adversity, and its success in the achievement of mutually determined goals. Power for group accomplishment can reach its highest intensity only as group cohesiveness is developed to the point that each member of the group is so much a part of the whole that group purposes become closely identified with his own purposes. This degree of cohesiveness can be attained only as the characteristics of unity, harmony, co-operation, interdependence, and the sharing of responsibilities for leadership are present and as each exerts its appropriate influence toward the establishment and perpetuation of group rapport.

Procedures for Establishing Group Rapport

A number of procedures are available to the teacher who is concerned with furthering the development of cohesive rapport within a school group. These may be thought of as aspects of teaching that may be employed in the natural course of organizing a democratic setting for growth and development.

Grouping according to interests, purposes, and friendships. An initial step in developing group rapport is that of making provisions for the formation of groups of students who like to be together. When young people are grouped arbitrarily according to such teacher-determined bases as intelligence, sex, achievement, vocational preference, behavior record, or the initial letter of their surnames, either in class groups or within classes, the establishment of group rapport is made difficult from the beginning. First of all, we need to see that all groupings of students are formed in accordance with the natural bases of interests, purposes, and friendships. The achievement of this objective will necessitate, in many instances, co-operative action with other teachers in changing the grouping procedures in an entire school. In addition, it places a responsibility upon the teacher for making certain that groups established within a class, i.e., working subgroups, conform to this principle.

A good way to judge the suitability of groupings in a school or class is by their *permanence*. If it is impossible to change groupings, if they are fixed arbitrarily by external factors and controls, if students have no opportunity to choose their associates, and if groups remain constant regardless of changes in interest, purposes, and friendships, the existing groupings very likely are unsuited to the purposes of a democratic school and will tend to inhibit the development of rapport necessary for learning and growth.

No better evidence of the despotic principles that inadvertently

dominate American secondary education exists than that found in the number of schools that still group students arbitrarily in so-called "ability" or "homogeneous" class groups. It is to be expected that in such groups there will be little basis for the establishment of group rapport. So long as these groupings exist in secondary schools, they will work against the development of cohesive group rapport and consequently will inhibit learning and achievement related to the goals of democratic education. The first task of the teacher in creating group rapport, then, is that of making provisions for students to choose membership in a group in terms of their personal interests, purposes, and friendships.

Becoming acquainted with each other. Group rapport is based upon acquaintance. A primary step to be taken by the teacher in the development of rapport is that of becoming acquainted with members of a new group by studying their cumulative records of previous growth experiences. The teacher must learn to know the students, and at the same time he must help them to know each other. It is implied in this process that the members of the student group will acquaint themselves with the teacher. As teachers learn all they can about the students who compose a teaching group, they go well beyond such matters as the knowledge of name, previous marks in school subjects, record of participation in extraclass activities, choice of high school curricula, or stated vocational preference—the kind of information usually included in school records. Genuine acquaintance with students will include all kinds of information that may have bearing upon adjustment and growth, such as those described in detail in Chapter 6.

The method of teaching plays an important part in the extent to which acquaintance develops within a class group. The teacher will need to devise numerous ways of helping members of the group to become acquainted with each other. Arranging for students to work co-operatively in subgroups contributes to acquaintance as do group discussions, opportunities for all students to share in planning learning activities, and such experiences as field trips and committee projects. Any time that a student is provided opportunity to make a contribution to the class, the acquaintance of members of the group with him is increased. Whenever the method of teaching employed encourages interaction between members of the group, it provides them opportunities to improve their knowledge and understanding of each other.

In some situations it will be possible to extend the procedures

Process (*continued*)	Needed Skills and Understandings (*continued*)
	7. Determining resources available for overcoming barriers and resistance. 8. Knowing how to determine a personal strategic role of leadership in the light of the situation and abilities.
Helping group members become aware of need for change and for the diagnostic process.	1. Determining the level of sensitivity of members to the need for change. 2. Choosing the methods that group members believe should be employed in change. 3. Creating awareness of the need for considering change and diagnosis through shock,[36] permissiveness, demonstration, and research. 4. Raising the level of aspiration of members and of making aspirations realistic. 5. Creating a perception of the potentialities for change expectations. 6. Creating expectations to use a graduated plan of action and to have patience in its use. 7. Creating understanding of the possible sources of help. 8. Creating a feeling of responsibility to engage in purported change by activity participation.
Co-operative diagnosis by leader and group of situation, behavior, understanding, feeling, or performance to be modified.	1. Making catharsis possible and acceptable when indicated as a starting point. 2. Skill in use of diagnostic instruments appropriate to the problem—surveys, maps, score cards, observations, and the like. 3. Diagnosis in terms of causes rather than "goods" or "bads." 4. Skill in helping group members to examine individual motivations. 5. Examination of the relation of one change to others in terms of particular situations and of group member understanding. 6. Clarifying interrelationship or roles between leader and group members.

[36] See section on Techniques for Changing Groups, p. 394.

Process (*continued*)	Needed Skills and Understandings (*continued*)
	7. Skill in dealing wisely with group members' ideology, myths, traditions, and values.
Involving others in process of deciding upon problem. Planning and practicing group action.	1. Developing techniques for arriving at a group decision. 2. Examining the consequences of certain possible decisions. 3. Making a graduated transition (a stepwise plan). 4. Doing anticipatory practice in carrying out a plan. 5. Providing for replanning and assessment at later stages. 6. Providing administrative organization. 7. Identifying and examining alternatives.
Carrying out plan successfully and productively.	1. Building and maintaining the morale of group members as change is attempted. 2. Deciding upon the amount of action to be made before pausing to assess and evaluate process and progress. 3. Understanding the effects of stress on individual beliefs and behavior. 4. Defining objectives in a manner that leads to easy clarification and selection of method. 5. Creating a realization of the need for relating methods to recognized goal.
Evaluation of group member progress, methods of working, and human relations.	1. Diagnosing causes of inefficient group action through the use of measuring instruments, interviews, interaction awareness panel. 2. Becoming proficient in the use of score cards, and rating scales.
Insuring continuity, spread, maintenance, and transference	1. Creating understanding or responsibility for participation in members of group. 2. Developing wide support for change. 3. Developing appreciation by others of work of participators who need support.

employed to promote acquaintance to social situations either within the time provided for regular class meetings or in related out-of-class experiences.

Formulation of common goals. When students seek to achieve common goals they are encouraged to form personal relationships that further the development of rapport within a group. Teachers may use this procedure by encouraging young people to participate co-operatively in the identification of educative experiences that are important and meaningful to them. When students share in the formulation of group goals, when they are provided opportunity to examine the worthwhileness of given activities, when they perceive important relationships between individual purposes and group objectives, then to the extent that they are helped to realize the true function of education in a democratic society, they will accept shared relationships with other members of their group that are fundamental in the maintenance of group rapport.

Comparing interests. Establishment of group rapport may be furthered by encouraging members of the group to compare their interests. When individuals discover that others have interests that coincide with or that are different from their own, they have a better basis for understanding and co-operation. Examination of the interests of others is a step in the direction of the development of respect and tolerance for existing differences in characteristics and interests. True acquaintance and genuine friendship are seldom based on superficial understanding of another individual.

As individual group members are helped to see relationships between their personal interests and those that are commonly accepted by all, their willingness to co-operate in group activities is enhanced. The development of group goals should incorporate, insofar as is compatible with the purposes for which the group exists, the fulfillment of individual interests. To achieve this end it is necessary for all members of a group to understand the different interests represented. This makes possible intelligent provision for a variety of interests as group goals are co-operatively identified and learning experiences developed.

Finding ways of helping each other. The teacher may further the establishment of cohesive group relationships by helping members of the group concern themselves with ways of helping each other. Authoritarian techniques of teaching consider co-operation in study situations as dishonest; democratic teaching seeks to promote the attitudes and skills of mutual help. As youth learn to

help each other they develop attitudes and habits of co-operation that serve to intensify their own interests and to promote concern for the total welfare of the group.

Sharing experiences. One of the most effective ways of developing group rapport is found in co-operative group experience—a party, a field trip, a group discussion, committee work directed toward group purposes, an assembly program, the publication of a class newspaper, the writing of a play, conducting an experiment, arranging an exhibit, or sharing an experience in literary, artistic, or musical appreciation. When members of a group share in the planning and execution of a project, they readily become acquainted with each other and find common needs and interests that further the establishment of rapport.

Solving common problems. When members of a group participate in the solution of a problem that is of common concern to all, they tend to develop cohesiveness as a group. The problem may be a simple one, such as decorating the classroom, developing a reference library for periodical literature, finding equipment for a class project; or it may be more difficult, such as the problem involved in developing a plan for student participation in curriculum development of the school or in helping to improve the behavior of the pupils. Academically, the problem might be one of understanding the issues involved in a local or national election, or it could be related to determining the use to which atomic energy should be put. If members of the class work co-operatively toward the solution of a group problem, the establishment of group rapport is a natural result. When groups have all their problems solved for them or when they are not permitted to assume responsibility for participation in the selection of problems to be solved, they are denied opportunity for development of the kind of group interdependence necessary for rapport.

Developing self- and group discipline. Group morale is improved and group rapport is maintained when members of the group are permitted and encouraged to accept responsibility for their own personal conduct and for the conduct of their group. As groups accept responsibility for formulating their own codes of behavior and for enforcing these codes, they grow in capacity to work co-operatively. To the extent that discipline is superimposed from without, the group will find it difficult to maintain effective rapport.

Co-operative appraisal. If the only evaluation utilized is that externally imposed by the teacher, it is difficult to maintain a quality of group rapport that is compatible with the ideals and

objectives of teaching. As groups are encouraged to co-operate in the appraisal of the effectiveness of their learning experiences, they develop capacity for judgment, analysis, and decision-making. They acquire attitudes of participation and responsibility that lead to security within the group. Rapport results when members of the group accept and perform all functions that are important to them and to their fellow members.

Consequences of Rapport

Consideration has been given to the bases for establishing rapport, the characteristics of a cohesive group and to the procedures that, if followed, will lead to the development of group rapport. It will be helpful at this point to consider the consequences or results that may be expected when rapport exists in a group. These consequences may be both individual and social, but they will always be interrelated. The consequences that result lend importance to the establishment of rapport. Their value and significance will determine the worthwhileness of exerting teaching effort toward the maintenance of a group structure and social climates conducive to rapport.

Recognition and appreciation of differences. When genuine group rapport exists in a democratic group, the members will have recognized that differences can and do exist reasonably and justifiably among themselves. Such differences are recognized to be necessary and desirable. Members can appreciate the variety of contributions that can be made to the group only when differences are permitted to exist and function. Differences lend interest to the composition of a group and to the effectiveness with which group purposes are accomplished. Appreciation of the wide variety of differences and their worth and the desire to make use of individual differences rather than to suppress them through arbitrarily enforced conformity is one of the important consequences of rapport in any group.

Using the contributions of all. Although realization of differences and appreciation of their potential value are worthwhile consequences of rapport, they cannot in themselves lead to maximum effectiveness. Without using the contributions of all members and their distinctive differences, a group may fall short of achieving the quality of rapport.

The way in which contributions are utilized will depend on the purposes being achieved and the needs of the group. All contributions should be considered and such modifications be made

as are necessary to adapt them to meeting group needs. If a particular contribution is found to be at variance with any specific purpose, the attainment of which is currently the concern of the group, that contribution can be withheld and be presented again at a later and more suitable time, or the suggestion may be modified sufficiently to make its acceptance practical. In some cases, contributions may have to be judged worthless with respect to group needs. Such judgment will be shared, however, by the individual whose contribution is under consideration. If a proper spirit of rapport exists, its disposition may be satisfactory to its contributor as well as to the group. If an individual feels that his contribution will receive due attention and be used if found valuable, he is not likely to be offended, however disappointed he may be. He will realize that the judgment of the group may be more valid than his own estimate of the worth of his proposed contribution, and he will acquiesce readily to postponing its use or to abandoning it altogether. The willingness to consider the appropriateness of individual contributions and to utilize them if found expedient, instead of the actual use or non-use of the proposal, is the principal characteristic that is associated with the existence of rapport within a group.

Increased effort and achievement. Several recent studies have shown that when a condition of rapport is present within a group its members increase their effort and achievement. This was found true in the experiment mentioned earlier that was conducted at the Hawthorne Plant of the Western Electric Company.[6] The results indicated that the development of group rapport was the major factor in increasing effort and production.

Thelan [7] found in an experimental study involving a control group that superior learning was accomplished by members of the experimental group who were permitted to share co-operatively in the development of a college course in freshman chemistry. Members of the experimental group showed superior accomplishment when judged in terms of the amount of chemistry acquired and retained and with respect to the attitudes exhibited toward their work and each other. The major experimental factors to which the experimental group was subjected were opportunities to share co-operatively with the instructor in (a) evaluating the learning objectives for each activity, (b) planning procedures to

[6] F. J. Roethlisberger and W. J. Dickson, *op. cit.*

[7] Herbert A. Thelan, "A Methodological Study of the Learning of Chemical Concepts and of Certain Abilities to Think Critically in Freshman Chemistry," *Journal of Experimental Education*, 13; 53–75, September, 1944.

be employed, (c) selecting scientific techniques to be applied in the solution of problems, (d) participating in experimentation, and (e) critically evaluating the results obtained.

Ward [8] found that an experimental group in high school chemistry learned more when the subject matter was functionally adapted to the needs and interests of members of the class group. Superiority of achievement in this experiment was judged in terms of the amount of subject matter retained.

Teachers have often observed that when they have taught a group of students in which the degree of rapport was high, increased efforts were made by students and the amount and quality of their achievement were superior in comparison to other groups in which little rapport was apparent. In a study related to this condition Klugman [9] found that when pupils worked co-operatively in pairs they averaged solving 7.27 problems as compared to 6.18 when working individually. In addition Klugman recorded a marked tendency for pupils to work longer voluntarily when permitted to co-operate with others.

These investigations are important initial attempts to evaluate the relationship between group rapport and increased effort and achievement. Perhaps in no other respect can the value of rapport be seen so clearly as in situations in which its presence is associated with increased effort. The growing accumulation of research data seems to support the hypothesis that group rapport exercises a strong influence upon increased effort and achievement.

Improved morale. Morale in an individual or a group is that condition which results from the presence of zeal, hope, confidence, enthusiasm, eagerness, fervor, desire to achieve, and other similar expressions of earnestness and willingness to further accomplishment. When rapport exists within a group the members exhibit such improvement in morale that it is evident even to a casual observer. To one who is assisting them in their learning situations, such morale is easily recognized and can be made the basis for a type of group life not otherwise possible.

Increased emotional balance. Now that educators have become cognizant of the part that emotion plays in the lives of boys and girls, more attention is being given to development of behavior appropriate to wholesome expression of emotion, to the understanding of the influence of emotion on happiness and effective

[8] William E. Ward, "An Experimental Study of Two Methods of Teaching Chemistry in Senior High School," *Journal of Experimental Education*, 11:69–80, September, 1942.

[9] Samuel F. Klugman, "Co-operative versus Individual Sufficiency in Problem Solving," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 35:91–100, Feb., 1944.

adjustment, to its utilization rather than its suppression, and to the maintenance of a suitable balance of emotional life. One of the ways to establish this balance is to provide for emotional growth, to assist individuals in learning how to adjust to emotional experiences, to help them to realize that such experiences are natural and give richness to living, and that they are consequently desirable and to be sought rather than avoided.

Mutual respect. As individuals within a group increase their knowledge and understanding of the differences in interest, attitude, purposes, and competence of others; as they grow in ability to share in decision making related to the over-all needs of the group; as they participate in co-operative experiences directed toward the solution of common problems; as they develop an appreciation of the importance of utilizing the contributions of all —they develop mutual respect for each other. Mutual respect implies a faith in the integrity and worth of other members of the group. It suggests that human beings accept an attitude of tolerance and understanding toward their fellow men. It connotes a sincere respect and consideration for the motives that guide the actions of all.

Concern for the common welfare. Group rapport results in the development of a concern for the common welfare, a fundamental tenet of democratic living. Concern for the common welfare implies a willingness to place the welfare of the group ahead of personal or selfish interests; it means that individuals will attempt to help others as they would help themselves. It grows out of man's inherent need to live within the security of a group. The development of group rapport contributes to the promotion of concern for the common welfare of the entire group.

Effect of Pattern of Teaching on Teacher-Student Relationships

The dependence of rapport on the relationships that exist between the teacher and students emphasizes the importance of considering the effect of various approaches to teaching on teacher-student rapport.

Three fundamental approaches or patterns of teaching that were identified by Mowrer [10] serve as a focal point for consideration of the nature of rapport between teacher and student. The theories of teaching suggest that the teacher may cause the stu-

[10] O. H. Mowrer, "Motivation and Learning in Relationship to the National Emergency," *Psychological Bulletin*, 38:421–431, 1941.

dent to learn by (1) creating the problem and forcing the student to solve it; (2) helping the student solve a problem that he already has; and (3) both creating the problem and helping the student solve it.

"Task setting" type of teaching. If the first of these patterns of teaching is employed, it is to be expected that the student will develop a negative attitude toward the teacher. When the student is unwilling or unable to perform tasks set by the teacher in the manner and with the speed required, he naturally develops resistance to the source of his dilemma. Inasmuch as rapport is based on harmonious, co-operative relationships, it is difficult or even impossible to establish and maintain such relationships in connection with a type of teaching that poses the teacher as the determiner of problems and the taskmaster whose responsibility it is to see that they are solved. Perhaps the only type of rapport possible between the teacher and the student in this type of teaching is that based upon admiration.

Bush [11] points out that a brilliant teacher may cause students to admire his ability and to develop a degree of respect based upon their admiration. Certain students may find themselves challenged to emulate the teacher whose skill they admire. This attitude may approach that of discipleship and complete personal loyalty to the teacher and his leadership. Within a single group of students it may be found that some maintain a type of rapport that is based on admiration for the "task setting" type of teacher, whereas others develop attitudes of resistance both toward the teacher and toward those who have adopted attitudes of discipleship for the teacher. The weakness found in a pattern of teaching that poses the teacher as the person who "calls the tune" is readily apparent. A few students who admire those qualities possessed by the teacher may maintain a type of rapport that is inspired by admiration, while others will develop a feeling of frustration that leads, in many instances, to resistance and avoidance. With such an approach to teaching a high quality of group rapport is unlikely if not impossible.

"Helping" type of teaching. The second approach to teaching, that of regarding the teacher as one who helps solve problems that students have already encountered, permits the development of a positive attitude by the student toward the teacher. Since the teacher undertakes to help the student solve his problems, the former becomes a friend and helper, a co-worker. The student will

[11] Robert N. Bush, "A Study of Student-Teacher Relationships," *Journal of Educational Research*, 35:645–56, May, 1942.

have no basis for negative attitudes because his personal goals are the source of his motivation; the teacher merely provides assistance to him in achieving his objectives. Such an approach to teaching encourages a congenial relationship between the teacher and student. It permits the existence of harmony, friendship, unity, interdependence, co-operation, and the sharing of leadership responsibility.

Good rapport usually results when students believe that the teacher is helping them to attack their problems and allowing them opportunity for expression of their own self-assertion and judgment in determining possible solutions and ways of working. By encouraging group participation the teacher tends to promote wholesome interactions among students. Students feel no resentment toward the participation of the teacher as a helper; therefore, resistance and attitudes of avoidance do not develop.

Combination "task setting" and "helping" type of teaching. Although the third pattern of teaching may be useful to many teachers as a transitional step from the first approach to the second, its contribution to the development of congenial teacher-student relationships is limited. In this manner of teaching the teacher serves the functions of both indicating the problems to be studied and then assisting the students in their efforts to solve them. Essentially it represents a combination of the first two patterns. Contrary to what one might expect, however, the addition of the co-operative procedure provided in the second approach does not ameliorate the negative aspects of the authoritarianism found in the first. The danger lies in the confused or mixed attitudes that the combined procedure generates. The student may develop resistance to the teacher on the one hand and yet feel the desire to work co-operatively on the other. Or the student who admires the brilliance of the teacher (and his seemingly all-seeing wisdom that permits him to select the problems that should be studied) may develop disgust when the teacher attempts to assume the role of helper, for it will seem to the student-disciple that the time would be better spent in listening to the wisdom of the teacher.

Such situations are likely to result in a lack of security on the part of students who never feel quite at ease with a teacher who is a "taskmaster" one day and a "co-operative helper" the next. The practice of defining problems of students also denies them the necessity for self-assertion, curiosity, or ingenuity in solving problems. It reduces the shared experiences of co-operative action to a pedagogical sham since the student is not permitted to work

toward the solution of problems of his own choosing. As a result, little faith can be placed in the assertion that this approach to teacher-student relationships will provide a basis for group rapport.

The pattern of teaching employed will determine largely the quality of teacher-student rapport that is developed in the teaching situation. Increased concern for the maintenance of group rapport inescapably becomes a problem of teaching method. A first step is for teachers to evaluate the effect of the patterns of teaching they employ upon teacher-student relationships. If it is found that teacher-student relationships are inhibiting the development of rapport, consideration should be given to the directive forces associated with the methods employed.

Criteria for Evaluating Teaching in Terms of Group Rapport

Since rapport plays a crucial part in the furtherance of learning and in the development of habits and skills of democratic living, teaching must necessarily be judged in terms of the quality of group rapport it seeks or is able to promote. The following criteria are suggestive of the kinds of questions that may be asked as a basis for evaluating teaching in terms of group rapport:

1. Is there evidence that congenial relations exist between the teacher and all members of the group?
2. Do all members of the group exhibit a genuine respect and friendship for their fellow members?
3. Is there evidence that students place the welfare of the group above personal ambitions?
4. Does the teacher make conscious effort to use the techniques and procedures for developing cohesive group rapport?
5. Do all members of the group find security and acceptance within the group?
6. Is there evidence that the teacher accepts all members of the group regardless of their race, religion, age, aptitude, ability, interest, vocational choice, home background, handicaps, sex, or educational plans?
7. Do all members of the group share the responsibility for leadership?
8. Is change the result of careful group planning rather than arbitrary directions?
9. Are members of the group showing growth in the capacity for self-direction in relation to co-operative practices?

10. Are the interests of all members of the group recognized when group activities are being planned?
11. Are the goals sought in learning experiences common to all members of the group?
12. Are evaluation procedures developed and shared co-operatively by all members of the group?
13. Do members of the group grow in their ability to understand themselves and others?
14. Is there evidence of increased interest, increased effort, and increased growth as a result of group rapport?
15. Is the morale of the group high?
16. Do all members of the group show evidence of satisfactory emotional adjustment within the group?
17. Is there evidence of growth on the part of all members of the group in the skills of working co-operatively, in sharing in decision making, in working toward group goals, and in the skills of democratic living?
18. Do members of the group show evidence of willingness to utilize intelligence rather than force in the solution of problems?
19. Does the teacher know and understand the personal problems of all members of the group?
20. Is there evidence that members of the group are developing a sympathetic understanding of their classmates?
21. Are students developing attitudes of helpfulness in behalf of others?
22. Is the relationship between the class group and the school as a whole congenial and harmonious?
23. Is there evidence that loyalties to the class group do not inhibit constructive relationships between groups or between members of different groups?
24. Do members of the group demonstrate capacity and habits of group discipline?
25. Are students permitted to form groups or subgroups in terms of their interests, purposes, and friendships?
26. Is there evidence that habits of behavior and conduct exhibited within the class group contribute constructively to relationships with other groups?

Summary

Bases for group rapport are found in both the personal qualities that individuals possess and the social characteristics that result from environmental influences. Upon both personal and so-

toward the solution of problems of his own choosing. As a result, little faith can be placed in the assertion that this approach to teacher-student relationships will provide a basis for group rapport.

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5. Do all members of the group find security and acceptance within the group?
6. Is there evidence that the teacher accepts all members of the group regardless of their race, religion, age, aptitude, ability, interest, vocational choice, home background, handicaps, sex, or educational plans?
7. Do all members of the group share the responsibility for leadership?
8. Is change the result of careful group planning rather than arbitrary directions?
9. Are members of the group showing growth in the capacity for self-direction in relation to co-operative practices?

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11. Are the goals sought in learning experiences common to all members of the group?
12. Are evaluation procedures developed and shared co-operatively by all members of the group?
13. Do members of the group grow in their ability to understand themselves and others?
14. Is there evidence of increased interest, increased effort, and increased growth as a result of group rapport?
15. Is the morale of the group high?
16. Do all members of the group show evidence of satisfactory emotional adjustment within the group?
17. Is there evidence of growth on the part of all members of the group in the skills of working co-operatively, in sharing in decision making, in working toward group goals, and in the skills of democratic living?
18. Do members of the group show evidence of willingness to utilize intelligence rather than force in the solution of problems?
19. Does the teacher know and understand the personal problems of all members of the group?
20. Is there evidence that members of the group are developing a sympathetic understanding of their classmates?
21. Are students developing attitudes of helpfulness in behalf of others?
22. Is the relationship between the class group and the school as a whole congenial and harmonious?
23. Is there evidence that loyalties to the class group do not inhibit constructive relationships between groups or between members of different groups?
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26. Is there evidence that habits of behavior and conduct exhibited within the class group contribute constructively to relationships with other groups?

Summary

Bases for group rapport are found in both the personal qualities that individuals possess and the social characteristics that result from environmental influences. Upon both personal and so-

cial bases it is possible to develop groups characterized by such cohesive qualities as unity, harmony, interdependence, co-operation, and shared responsibility for leadership.

Group rapport plays an important role in the learning process. It is possible to identify certain procedures that can be employed by teachers to establish rapport in school groups although we are not able to characterize every type of consequence or result of group rapport for a democratic society. Helping pupils to solve their own problems promotes rapport. Methods of teaching that depend on a teacher serving as a "task-setter" are less successful.

The importance of rapport in teaching-learning situations may be stated as follows: When members of a group are happily secure in their relationships to each other, when each is able to know that his contributions will be respected and used whenever possible, and when habits of helpfulness lead individuals to assist each other, the achievement of both the group as a unit and of individual members of the group will be affected favorably.

Teaching, especially in secondary schools, is primarily concerned with the development of attitudes and skills of group living. In the United States emphasis is placed on helping youth achieve competence for co-operative living within democratic groups. Teachers may undertake to accomplish this goal by providing experiences that permit young people to learn to live in co-operative interdependence while participating in school groups that are motivated by cohesive relationships. Democratic teaching, therefore, endeavors to accomplish its unique purposes by helping groups of students to establish and maintain group rapport.

Related Experiences

1. Study the high school backgrounds of members of your teacher-education group in terms of the quality of rapport experienced by each. Ask members of the class to report incidents in which (a) the rapport of a group was exceptional; (b) teaching procedures tended to inhibit the establishment of rapport; (c) increased effort and achievement resulted from the existence of rapport; and (d) students were permitted to share co-operatively in the development of the work of a course.

2. Visit your own college laboratory high school or a school in a nearby community in order to observe the relationship of group rapport to teaching. See if you can find examples of (a) students being permitted to work co-operatively within class groups; (b) a teacher who approaches teaching from the point of view of helping students solve their recognized problems; (c) a broad participation in class leadership

functions; (d) class groupings based upon interests, purposes and friendships; and (e) efforts being made by a teacher to improve his acquaintance with the students he teaches.

3. Using the suggested criteria for appraising teaching in relationship to group rapport, evaluate as accurately as you can a class group in your college laboratory high school. As far as possible, arrange for members of your teacher-education group to complete this project in teams of five to eight members, but arrange for visits to the class being examined to be made by only one or two persons at one time.

Note: Keep in mind that these evaluations are being made for the purpose of your professional growth. Every effort should be made to insure that the teacher or class group observed is not embarrassed or offended by the manner in which this study is carried on. All activities and interpretations should be discussed only in a professional manner with other members of your teacher-education group.

4. Arrange for members of your group to interview personnel directors or owners of nearby industrial establishments for the purpose of learning the techniques employed to promote group rapport among workers. Compare your findings with those of other members of the group.

5. Interview two or three high school students for the purpose of discovering whether they have established rapport with groups with whom they study in school. Such questions as the following may be asked:

(a) Which of the groups of students that you meet with daily in your classes do you like best? Why?
(b) Would you prefer to be with the group with which you study in school or with other groups with whom you associate in out-of-school time?
(c) Do you feel "left out" of group activities in any of the classes you attend?

6. The following films related to the development of group rapport are worth seeing:

Teamwork (22 minutes: sound). Distributed by Simmel-Meservey, 321 South Beverly Drive, Beverly Hills, California. This film presents a study in human relations showing six means by which co-operation can best be achieved.

Shy Guy (22 minutes: sound: color). Distributed by Coronet Films, Glenview, Illinois. A film illustrating how one high school boy overcame his shyness in a new school. With the guidance of his father the central figure of the film overcomes his loneliness and diffidence in learning how to establish genuine friendships with his classmates.

Family Teamwork (22 minutes: sound: color). Distributed by Frith Films, P. O. Box 565, Hollywood 28, California. Depicts the under-

standing of parents and children that should exist in an American family. Ways in which members of a family group pull together inside and outside the home when congenial rapport exists are illustrated. The feeling of spontaneity and fun enjoyed by members of the family group is supported by a strong current of genuine respect and affection that members feel for each other.

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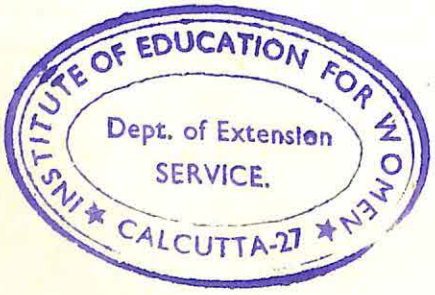

Chapter 13

TEACHER-STUDENT SHARING

To what goals does the method of teacher-student sharing lead? . . . How can the teacher initiate co-operative activities within a school system? . . . Indicate steps that can be taken in beginning teacher-student sharing. . . . What pre-planning is necessary for introducing teacher-student sharing? . . . How can teacher-student sharing be employed in the various aspects of the learning process? . . . What should be done in organizing for shared activities? . . . Discuss the principles that offer direction for teacher-student sharing as a method of teaching. . . . What steps can be taken to induct a group into the process of co-operative sharing? . . . Describe types of organization that help to develop shared action.

The method of teaching that has been found most closely in accord with social purposes of secondary education has been given such titles as pupil-teacher planning, teacher-pupil planning, and teacher-student planning. Hopkins [1] has used the term pupil-teacher learning to describe an experiment conducted in the Wilmington, Delaware school system. Giles [2] intentionally placed the teacher first in his use of teacher-pupil planning in order to emphasize the importance of the teacher in the process. Alberty,[3] apparently not wishing to stress the scholastic distinction frequently made between the terms "student" and "pupil," used the term teacher-student planning. This approach to teaching implies the co-operative sharing of learning experiences by the teacher and the student. Since the focus in democratic teaching is placed

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[2] H. H. Giles, *Teacher-Pupil Planning.* New York: Harper and Brothers, 1941, 395 pp.

[3] Harold Alberty, *Reorganizing the High-School Curriculum.* New York: The Macmillan Company, 1947, pp. 337–375.

standing of parents and children that should exist in an American family. Ways in which members of a family group pull together inside and outside the home when congenial rapport exists are illustrated. The feeling of spontaneity and fun enjoyed by members of the family group is supported by a strong current of genuine respect and affection that members feel for each other.

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on sharing all aspects of learning—purposing, planning, executing and evaluating—teacher-student sharing is the term used to describe teaching that aims to provide genuinely co-operative experience in all phases of teaching and learning.

Teacher-student sharing as a method of teaching is readily identified in situations where the teacher organizes learning in accordance with the fundamental tenets of democratic living. It assumes (1) that all members of a group, including students and teacher, should share in formulating policies and establishing purposes; (2) that all must be encouraged to participate in the execution of policies accepted by the group; (3) that all members of a group are privileged to share in the benefits of action for the common good; and (4) that all enjoy the right and responsibility of helping determine the worth of established policy and resulting action. Teacher-student sharing as a method of teaching aims directly at helping *all* students learn to provide direction to themselves and to the group of which they are a part.

Goals of Teacher-Student Sharing

The goals of teacher-student sharing as a method are found in our growing knowledge of the psychology of learning, in the significance of group rapport, in the need for self-motivation, in the importance of maintaining adjustment, in the concern for individual differences, in the need for developing competence for democratic living, in the broad unit approach to teaching, and in the concept of teaching as a process of guidance.

Learning through participation. Young people learn how to live through real experiences better than they do through vicarious experiences involving reading and talking.[4] Vicarious experiences are important; for some individuals they are a major avenue of learning, but without first having enjoyed the experiences of actually living democratically, the value of verbal experiences is greatly limited.

Group rapport. Teacher-student sharing aims primarily at developing a congenial cohesiveness within the learning group. As was pointed out in Chapter 12, we now know that group rapport is so important that teachers are unlikely to find any more

[4] The following references will be helpful:
Earl C. Kelley, *Education for What Is Real*. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1947, 114 pp.
Boyd H. Bode, *How We Learn*. New York: D. C. Heath & Co. 1940, 308 pp.
John Dewey, *Experience and Education*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1938, 116 pp.

effective method to promote learning and adjustment. When students feel that they actually share in the entire learning experience, when they know their classmates well, when they come to understand and have faith in the motives of their teacher, and when they are made aware of the importance of their own contribution to group effort they make their greatest progress.

Perhaps most important of all, the group rapport that is attainable through teacher-student sharing is directly related to the two essential characteristics of a democratic group—mutual respect and shared power. It is the kind of rapport that exists in a group that is attempting to respect the dignity and worth of each individual while at the same time working to arrive at compromises that permit action for the common good of all members of the group.

Rapport is unlikely to exist in a group in which the teacher functions as the "director" of student activities. By establishing an atmosphere of permissiveness and mutual co-operation and guidance, group rapport can be maintained. Teacher-student sharing finds strong support in our growing understanding of the importance of establishing and maintaining group rapport within learning groups.

Self-motivation. The quality and quantity of effort exerted by individuals in learning situations is directly proportional to (1) the recognition and acceptance of the goals toward which efforts are directed; (2) the extent to which goals are genuinely related to recognized or "felt" needs; and (3) the immediate importance of the learning activity to personally accepted goals. When a person is permitted to work at a task that is important to him, learning is facilitated. The motivation for learning in such instances comes from within the desires and objectives of the individual. It may be described as self-motivation as contrasted to the external motivation so frequently found in school situations in which the teacher finds himself in the position of forcing, persuading, or bribing students to learn tasks set for them.

Teacher-student sharing helps students in formulating goals that they regard as important. This method helps them to identify forms of action that are appropriate to the realization of democratic goals as a direct method of encouraging self-motivation. Since this approach to teaching is essentially one of guidance, each individual is accorded the prerogative of choice within the framework of group plans and activities. External motivation, therefore, is supplanted by self-motivation related to personal and group goals.

Leader behavior that inhibits change. Discussion of the study of leadership qualities would be incomplete without consideration of some of the factors in leadership that tend to negate change in a group. Considered here are only those actions and characteristics that have been most readily apparent in the studies of group dynamics. No effort is made to examine all of the traits of the autocratic leader because it is taken for granted that most of those traits inhibit group action in all instances. By analyzing the factors in purportedly democratic leadership—factors that have been found to produce inhibitions to change—the dangers and pitfalls incident to experimentation in the area of group leadership become readily recognizable.

1. Overemphasis on the process. In several of the studies in group dynamics, leadership has been most sharply criticized for devoting almost complete attention to the process of leadership and member activity. Whenever groups become conscious that the leader is striving for a particular effect or endeavoring to follow a preconceived set of principles or procedures, resistance develops.

2. Failure to take group into complete confidence. Whenever leadership fails to assist group members gain a complete understanding of "what is being attempted," when some individuals are left in confusion with respect to the purpose of the study of the dynamics of group action, insecurities develop that delay action.

3. Overeagerness to accomplish results. As is frequently the case, proponents of particular types of group action and leadership have made the mistake of being too eager to prove that their methods are superior. Undue pressure and persuasion frequently result in inhibiting change.

4. The use of technical language. Leaders in the group dynamics movement, although expressing the objective of communicating in the language of the lay citizen have frequently inhibited communication by the overuse of terms that are meaningless or misunderstood by others.

5. Behind-the-scene manipulation. Some individuals, who support democracy verbally, find it a convenient form of group organization for their own self-centered, manipulative efforts. It is a relatively simple matter for three or four members of a group of fifteen to twenty members to manipulate decisions when all other members of the group are sincerely seeking to arrive at a group consensus. By agreeing in advance upon desired goals, either explicitly or implicitly, members of a few groups that have been

studied developed suspicion of their sincerity thereby destroying group confidence and inhibiting agreement and action.

6. Assuming novelty for techniques and processes. When the leader takes the position that he or his associates have discovered a "new" leadership or group technique, members of the group who have experienced similar processes, perhaps under different names, tend to develop disbelief and resistance. For example, leaders in certain experiments in group dynamics have accorded the term "role playing" to modifications of a technique known previously to many leaders of educational and adult work as the "dramatic method." Emphasis on the discovery of this process of group leadership by those interested in experimental work has contributed to sharp criticism of the entire approach to group study.

7. Laissez-faire actions of leaders. Some leaders assume "do-nothing" attitudes toward group activities in the mistaken belief that such procedures are democratic. Groups under such leadership develop disgust toward the leader and frequently submit to domination from group members and thus delay group progress.

Nature of Group Participation

Research in group development has thrown light upon some of the intricacies of group participation. Often, successful group work has been attributed to the personality of the leader and his ability to see that group production resulted. Confusion relative to the functions of individuals within a group and with respect to the influence of individual personalities upon other group members has existed.

Efforts were directed by the National Training Laboratory in Group Development toward the identification of various types of "roles" or participation assumed by group members and to ways of training for effective group membership.[37] Throughout this investigation the conviction was reinforced that the functions of leadership and group membership must be considered as correlative aspects of the over-all group growth and production. Out of the extensive study and analysis of the types of participation evidenced by members of different types of groups, the "roles" assumed either consciously or subconsciously by group members were classified into the following three categories: [38]

[37] See Kenneth D. Benne and Paul Sheats, "Functional Roles of Group Members," *The Journal of Social Issues*, 4:41–49, Spring, 1948.

[38] *Ibid.*, p. 42

Adjustment. Teacher-student sharing represents one approach to furthering adjustment by permitting students an opportunity to participate in the formulation of policies related to learning experiences. It is based on the assumption that individuals have a better chance of maintaining adjustment when they are permitted to share in the control of their own destiny.

Meeting the needs of youth. A co-operative approach to planning school experiences aims directly toward meeting the recognized needs of all members of the group. Such a teaching procedure permits the adaptation of learning activities to the concerns of individual students. Teacher-student sharing also aims to make provisions for the extension of affection and security to all members of the group. Likewise, it is based on the well-grounded assumption that freedom from fear can be best assured in a situation that permits members of the group to govern themselves.

Recognizing that the personal and social needs of young people frequently are not satisfied by an academic approach to logically organized bodies of subject matter, teacher-student sharing makes provision for a problem type of approach to learning that permits members of the group to adapt subject matter to their own recognized needs.

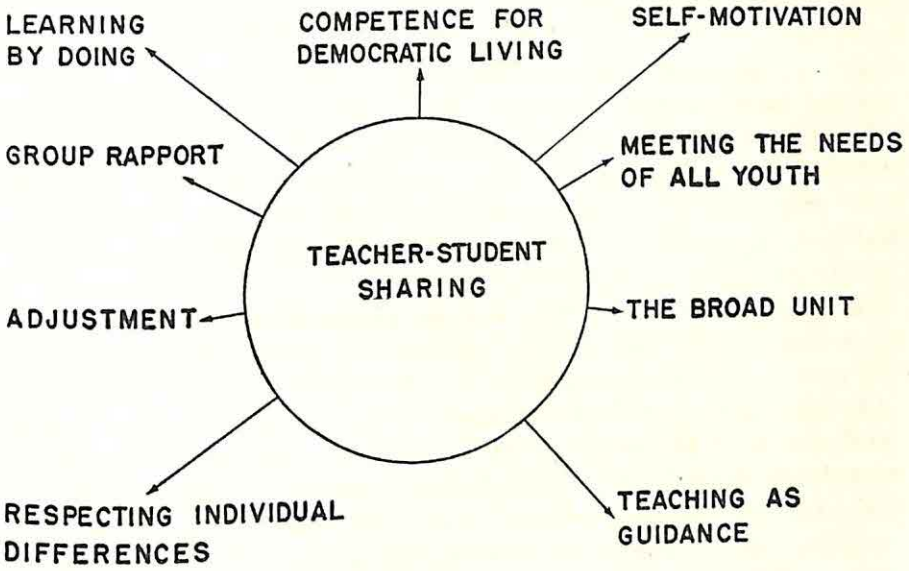
Respecting individual differences. Teacher-student sharing is based on the assumption that the method of teaching to be used is planned with respect for the many differences found to exist within any group of students. The flexible approach to learning that permits members of the group help to plan ways to utilize the peculiar contributions of all makes a direct contribution to this goal of teaching. When the worth of an individual's contribution is judged not in terms of his ability to outdo his classmates in demonstrating recognized skills, but rather with respect to his ability and willingness to do his best in his own way in terms of group goals, individual differences have a greater chance to be appreciated and to function contributively.

Developing competence for democratic living. Over and above all else, teacher-student sharing as a method of teaching is directly related to the central goal of secondary education—developing social competence. It aims to promote through shared experiences the growth of attitudes, knowledges, values, and skills necessary for successful citizenship. Such tenets of our democratic faith as respect for others, use of intelligence, and concern for the common welfare are emphasized daily through functional group experience.

The development of the habits and skills of initiative, self-direc-

FIGURE 11

GOALS OF TEACHER-STUDENT SHARING



tion, and self-discipline, as well as ability to work harmoniously with others, are of direct concern to teachers who use teacher-student sharing.

The broad unit. The co-operative formulation of group goals, sharing in the selection of steps toward goals, and the evaluation of results imply the broad unit approach to teaching rather than the traditional day-by-day isolated assignment procedure.[5] Teacher-student sharing is based upon teaching procedures that recognize that learning should be concerned with wholes rather than with detailed parts. Application of such an approach to teaching assumes that purposing, planning, and evaluation, as well as the traditionally recognized process of execution, are integral aspects of teaching-learning situations.

Teaching: a process of guidance. Teacher-student sharing, illustrated in Figure 11, has for one of its goals "teaching as guidance," but it also has its basis, as a method, in the *process* of guidance. Teaching that is merely a process of "giving to" or "directing" permits little opportunity for the development of effective democratic relationships between the teacher and the student. Only when teaching is a process of democratic leadership—of helping others to make choices—is it possible to approach the

[5] Harold Alberty, *Reorganizing the High-School Curriculum*. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1947, Chapters VIII–XI, pp. 221–336.

task in such a manner as to make really contributive teacher-student sharing possible.

Establishing a Basis for Sharing

It is necessary that certain first steps be taken and definite preparation be made by the teacher in preparation for attempting to provide opportunities for sharing. The teacher will need to decide the extent to which initial attempts in teacher-student planning may go. Areas in which sharing of activities can take place or will be appropriate must be defined, and problems that may occur must be faced.

Initiating teacher-student sharing within a school. The beginning teacher and the student-teacher may doubt whether he can fit into a school situation in which opportunities for teacher-student sharing will be provided. If such a teacher is to begin his professional career in a school system where democratic practices are followed, he will have little difficulty making appropriate adjustments. He, together with other new teachers, probably will be introduced to such practices during a pre-school faculty workshop in which the philosophy of the school and its customary practices are discussed, explained, and re-defined or modified. In a friendly meeting of the staff, new teachers will become acquainted with each other, will have opportunities to ask questions and to indicate the areas in which they need assistance. Conferences will be arranged with those best able to help and plans for the opening days of classwork will be made.

The teacher, in making preparation for providing experiences in which students may consciously share, must first of all examine himself to see if he really believes that he can succeed. He must re-affirm and strengthen, if need be, his faith in democracy as a way of life and his belief that to train for citizenship he must provide for co-operative participation in the school situation in order that youth will come to believe in our way of life and become competent in it through firsthand experiences.

Secondly, the teacher has the responsibility of convincing others, as well as himself, that democracy will work at any level or age, experience, and ability, although its success may depend on past experience and the stage of maturation and may vary with respect to each particular problem to be solved. Willingness to experiment and a realization that in a process of experimentation certain procedures will fail while others will need to be modified to meet a specific situation will help the teacher. He need not be-

come discouraged when students fail to share or to be interested in participation. They may have become so accustomed to direction and to coercion that first instances of freedom to participate in the planning of what they will do may leave them confused, insecure, and unable to exercise self-direction. A gradual process may be necessary in introducing the practices of sharing. Frequently a limited field of activities may need to be suggested for beginning efforts. The conscientious teacher guages the readiness of students to share with him and exercises patience in helping students achieve readiness for co-operative action.

Some first steps. The following suggestions have been found helpful to teachers who have initiated teacher-student sharing as a method of teaching in the secondary school:

1. Take members of the student group into one's confidence. In inducting a group into the process of co-operative sharing much confusion can be avoided if the teacher will help members of the group understand what is being attempted and why it is important to them. This procedure involves helping a group see more clearly the relationship between experiences in school and goals of living—in the present and future. This process should offer numerous opportunities for students to examine their own needs and the ways in which these and the needs of other members of the group may best be satisfied by the program of the school. If students are to be inducted into shared experiences with the teacher, they must be permitted to know all of the reasons and implications of such an approach to teaching.

Unless the teacher takes the group into his confidence, students may not understand the removal of arbitrary controls or the efforts of the teacher to stimulate self-direction and co-operative activities. Such confusion may lead members of the group to adopt laissez-faire procedures that will place the teacher in a defensive position and may ultimately lead him to authoritarian action. Groups may become apparently democratic for a time as an escape from distasteful despotic teacher-control, but they will not be able to maintain co-operative group procedures unless they actually understand and desire to attain the goals of democratic living.

2. Be as definite as possible relative to the function that the teacher is to serve. It is appropriate for students to examine with the teacher the role of the leader in a democratic group. In this way they will come to understand that rather than relinquishing his responsibility for promoting learning, the teacher is approaching his responsibilities in a democratic rather than an autocratic manner. When students are helped to see the function of leader-

ship as that of guidance rather than direction, as encouragement rather than compulsion, as assisting in the discovery rather than "telling how," they are helped to accept a different concept of group and personal relationship with the teacher. The teacher can help members of the group see that the leader's task is to help the *group* perform all such functions as decision making, assignment of tasks, direction of activities, control of behavior, and judgment of results.

3. Permit students to assume as much responsibility as they are able, as proved by group experience. This point of view places students in a position of earning the right to enjoy democratic participation. Its usefulness lies in the emphasis it places upon students accepting responsibility. It also permits the teacher to regulate the amount of participation extended to a group of students in accordance with the maturity of the group and the complexity of the problem to be solved. Its danger lies in the teacher himself. He may find it convenient to decrease rather than increase student participation. This difficulty can be avoided, however, if members of the group share in the process of deciding how much responsibility they are ready to accept.

Fortunately, in an educative situation such as the school, it is possible for the teacher to rekindle the fires of democracy when they burn low from neglect by individual members of a group. It may be necessary in extreme circumstances for the teacher to supply temporary arbitrary control of a group that has failed to assume responsibility for its actions. Whenever this happens, whether due to weaknesses on the part of the teacher or on the part of members of the group, the teacher's next responsibility is to re-establish democratic procedures as expeditiously as conditions permit.

4. Areas in which sharing is to be initiated should be identified and de-limited. The beginning of teacher-student sharing will be made easier in some instances if the teacher and students take time to decide upon the limitations necessary with respect to cooperative endeavor. Fields in which opportunities are abundant and varied and those that lend themselves easily to student participation can be selected for initial experimentation. It is usually relatively easy to select those areas in which students feel an urge to assist because of the relation of such concerns to student needs and interests. If the teacher feels a lack of security in initiating teacher-student sharing, such areas may be selected, at first, from activities not usually associated in the minds of students with

study and learning or with subject-matter achievement. For example, initial teacher-student sharing could be developed in connection with activities such as field trips, assembly programs, home rooms, student government, class parties, debates, experiments, activities related to the use of visual aids, special projects, room arrangement, hall conduct, or the selection of supplementary reading materials for a classroom library.

The teacher, in his preparation for shared experiences or opportunities in which sharing will be possible, will need to think through the range of possibilities and to identify many activities that students have felt worthwhile but in which participation may have been discouraged. Attention will need to be given to recognizing activities in which sharing will increase interest and lead to the development of group participation, activities furthering the students' own goals and which may be engaged in without breaking down ideals and respect for "good discipline," "teacher-status," "individual accomplishment," "passing and failure," or "getting the subject across." As experience is gained the practice of co-operative sharing can be extended to other more fundamental aspects of the teaching-learning process.

The following guides for delineating areas for sharing will be helpful to the teacher who is initiating teacher-student sharing. Choose an area:

(a) That is related to the recognized needs and interests of most of the members of the group;

(b) In which the teacher feels secure in inviting participation;

(c) That permits the group to enact decisions it makes;

(d) In which decision making is the prerogative of teacher and members of the group;

(e) That permits plans for sharing with other groups if they will be affected by the results of action;

(f) In which goals of shared participation are relatively immediate and important to all members of the group;

(g) That concerns the group as a whole.

5. Develop group codes of conduct early in order to provide security for students released from teacher domination. Students who have learned to depend on the rule of the teacher for the determination of behavior in school will need a reasonable substitute if insecurity is to be avoided. In anticipation of such a condition the teacher can assist members of the group to develop their own rules for conduct within the class and with respect to their mutual personal relations. Whenever problems

of behavior develop they can be presented to the group for consideration of the suitability of established agreements relative to the manner in which they desire to work together.

6. Expect mistakes and failures. Just as we readily accept the fact that the scientist performing an experiment will fail more often than he will succeed and as we recognize that the star basketball player will miss perhaps three times to each successful shot at the basket, so we must come to recognize that students who are learning to participate in co-operative effort will make many mistakes and outright failures in the process. If treated as catastrophies, failures will soon destroy co-operative effort; if viewed as a natural and necessary aspect of the learning process, through objective and unemotional examination and analysis, they may be used to accelerate growth in the skills of co-operative living.

Setting the stage—pre-planning. It is the responsibility of the teacher to set the stage for sharing opportunities, although certain properties may be furnished by the students themselves. The schoolroom will need attention before the opening of school. If the instructional materials provided are meager, if walls are dirty and dingy, if pictures are hung too high to be enjoyed, or if the amount of bulletin board space available will tend to limit the display of student productions, the teacher will find it necessary to devote time to improving the physical setting. Some of the students will be happy to help in making the room a more attractive place in which to work and co-operate.

Inasmuch as physical surroundings affect the feelings and attitudes of students, one way to assure a pleasant atmosphere is to provide an attractive classroom. Seats are preferred that can be moved to permit small groups to work together or arranged so that the whole class can form a discussion group or placed to accommodate co-operative listening to the teacher or a representative of the class. Tables at which members of the group may work together, adjustable chairs, cabinets in which to keep collections and materials, bookcases that make materials readily available, bulletin boards that lend encouragement to the showing of records, planning suggestions, and products of student endeavor, both group and individual, can usually be provided with a small outlay of time and energy. Student participation in making these arrangements will help prepare individuals for sharing other, and perhaps more significant, activities after school and classes are under way.

Besides providing for necessary rearrangement of the room and its contents there are other tasks for the teacher before he is ready

to introduce sharing to his students. These include locating materials that can be used later; becoming acquainted with sources that will be needed; arranging, usually in co-operation with the principal, for maps, charts and other supplies; discovering persons in the community who may be called on for information, entertainment, and inspiration; finding the location of community activities, industrial plants, and social institutions that will furnish opportunities for observation and firsthand learning; becoming acquainted with recreational facilities within reach of students, and familiar with church activities provided for young people. It is advantageous, also, to identify the service clubs that are interested in promoting wholesome activity for the youth of the community. In addition, avenues for co-operation with local newspapers should be cleared. It may be desirable to find points of scenic interest in the surrounding region and in places that are safe and desirable for outdoor gatherings. Of course, as part of their class activities students will be encouraged to gather much of the foregoing information for themselves, but the teacher must also assume responsibility for being familiar with such data in order that he can supplement the information offered by students and contribute to appraisal of the appropriateness of possible choices. The teacher has the responsibility at all times of leading students through sharing information he possesses, to re-examine what they may have only superficially explored.

It is also the responsibility of the teacher to procure instruments for recording experiences, for indicating student growth, and for reporting to other groups or to outside agencies, as may be necessary or desirable for student or teacher use. Some of these will need to be ready for early use and cannot, therefore, wait for student assistance in devising them. Students will be able to offer suggestions later for their revision or for developing better instruments. When students realize the help that such instruments afford in facilitating growth and learning activities they will be stimulated to make improvements and to extend their usefulness.

The areas mentioned as fields of activity in which students may be encouraged early to share with each other and with the teacher, and the phases of pre-planning that must be the responsibility of the teacher but which can be shared early with students, are merely suggestive of means that are possible. The teacher will be able to add many more as he undertakes the fascinating task of providing for teacher-student sharing in a specific teaching situation.

Sharing All Phases of Learning Activities

Aspects of learning with which this book is concerned are *purposing, planning, executing,* and *evaluating.* Each of these consists of many activities that lead to the adjustment that collectively we call the products of learning. It is impossible and perhaps undesirable to attempt to classify learning activities in terms of these four processes. Each is fundamental to the learning process at all times. Purposing, for example, will be involved throughout the teaching-learning experience, but it must be consciously considered initially if the activities of planning and executing and evaluating are to have significance.

These aspects of learning activities represent phases in which opportunities for teacher-student sharing are to be found. Although they are stages that have always characterized learning procedures, they have in the past been the prerogative of the teacher. Even the executing phase has been performed usually under teacher dominance. In democratic school situations these occasions for learning co-operatively exist in all the activities in which youth engage. Each aspect of the learning process may be shared by students in terms of individual abilities and interests.

These phases, even though they are not discrete and may take place simultaneously or in any of several orders, must all be considered in developing the method of teacher-student sharing.

Purposing. In the traditional secondary school the purposes were set by the type of subject matter taught. As such they were concerned largely with subject-matter mastery. Little thought was given by those who planned curricula to either group or individual purposes or to the purposes of the society that were served by the school. In later years, when educators began to be concerned about purposes, goals, objectives, and aims, attempts were made to reorganize subject matter in such ways that it would relate to purposes recognized as goals of secondary education. Teacher-student sharing was not employed as yet, however, as a method for the achievement of this objective. A curriculum expert or a faculty committee set up the purposes for each course that teachers were expected to present to their pupils. Goals of instruction were still related to subject matter, and although attention was often called to pupil purposes and teacher purposes, these, too, were established by the curriculum builder. They were not developed with respect to recognized teacher or student aims, but rather were conceived in terms of knowledges, skills, and understandings in relation to subject fields.

It is evident that if teachers and students *share* in the process of setting up goals to be achieved, in *purposing,* the ends sought will be of interest to both. Purposing means the choosing of purposes. It implies intending, proposing, aiming, setting up to be attained, predetermining, contemplating, projecting, and deciding upon goals that are desirable within life and in terms of the objectives that may be reached through a particular learning activity.

Frequently, students may not know how to state their goals in understandable language; they may not be able to formulate their vague feelings and concerns into distinct personal objectives. The teacher has the responsibility of assisting in the clarification of student goals to the point that they serve as objectives of learning. In so doing, the teacher shares in their formulation. Working together, students and teacher agree upon the purposes to be gained by members of the group as a direct or indirect result of learning activities. The teacher will contribute, also, to helping students relate recognized purposes to the larger goals of the society of which they are a part.

Planning. There is no clear distinct point at which purposing ends and planning begins. By *planning* is meant the process engaged in by students and teachers in which they project a method of action, organize their facilities for carrying out the proposed activities, and outline the procedure to be followed. Planning involves designing, that is, arranging the composite factors that enter into a pattern of action. It may be expressed as laying out the course, mapping the strategy that in relation to learning activity will be the most efficient. Planning involves organizing and shaping the work to be done and arranging the various steps to be taken that will lead to a recognized goal.

This stage of sharing may be difficult at first, but when students realize that their part in the process is recognized and acknowledged by the teacher, they will enter into the contriving, the projecting, and the designing with wholehearted willingness, and they will find pleasure in participation. This is a high point in democratic co-operation, planning to attain goals that have been recognized and accepted by all.

Executing. After the goals have been set up and the plans made for reaching them, execution of the plans usually becomes a comparatively easy task. When the plans are made as a shared experience, it is an agreeable activity to carry the plans into action, to pursue a course that leads to the realization of group goals. Students and teacher readily manipulate the various factors in their

plans so that they carry into effect the project that has been designed by the group. They fulfil their purposes by observing the steps chosen for reaching the goal and by proceeding with the facility that results from careful planning and acceptance of responsibility. Through such a process students come to realize that sharing the execution of their plans is an experience in democratic living. Thus, they advance toward independence and self-direction.

Evaluating. During the stages of purposing, planning, and executing there is a parallel process in operation—that of appraising the quality of the goals and of the probable effectiveness of the plans that are being made to reach them. Evaluation of the process of execution and the results of the procedures followed in relation to the ends sought permits a degree of sharing that did not seem possible when the students were first made aware of the fact that they were expected to take part in these various processes. A concomitant learning that accompanies growth in power to appraise the worthwhileness of the activities of a group is the growing ability to judge the effectiveness of one's own acts and to think of them in terms of the overall purposes of the group and of society.

The spirit of co-operation that has been built up during the learning period—a day or a semester—will be accompanied by satisfaction and the attitude of good will toward others. This contributes directly to the establishment of the social competencies that enable the individual to accept democratic procedures and to resolve to carry such practices into out-of-school life. It is this ability to share under all circumstances and in all types of activities that makes the individual realize that democratic procedures can be applied in all areas of living. Through the experiences of sharing initiated and developed within the school, youth come to see that the principles of democracy offer an ideal approach to all aspects of learning and living.

Organizing for Sharing

The quality of the organization developed will determine to a large extent the effectiveness of the resulting learning experiences. The teacher concerned with organizing for sharing will be able to improve the quality of democratic experiences provided through careful attention to the following procedures and principles that offer guidance for organizational activities.

Creating a social climate—emotional and intellectual—for sharing. The teacher should first endeavor to establish a social climate that encourages sharing. This cannot be done before the members of the group are assembled, although the teacher will have made preparation, as described earlier in this chapter, for the accomplishment of this procedure.

The nature of the social climate developed within the group depends almost entirely upon the quality of the leadership provided by the teacher. By helping students feel at ease, by making them feel "at home" in the group, by aiding all to achieve a relationship to other members of the group that is congenial, mutually respectful, and free from tensions, the teacher helps to create a social setting that is conducive to sharing.

First of all, the teacher will seek to become well acquainted with each student and will make an effort to help students come to know each other. Secondly, the teacher will make provisions for helping members of the group examine their personal interests and needs in order that they may recognize those held in common with other members of the group. Thirdly, the teacher will seek ways of relating the specific and general purposes of the school to individual needs and interests. And fourthly, the teacher will need to help all members of the group to come to understand the nature of democratic ideals and procedures.

The last process is an important one. Students frequently come into possession of erroneous conceptions of the functions of education. They often think of school as something that is supposed to be concerned with unpleasant and disagreeable tasks. They may have learned to think of the teacher as a "school policeman," one who is supposed to "punish" and to prevent occurrences of interaction between students. They may have been told previously "not to talk to each other," to "mind their own business," "not to work together," to "do as told," to "get the assignments," or "to work independently." If such pupils suddenly find themselves in a group in which they are encouraged to work together, to exchange ideas, to *share,* they will naturally become confused and insecure. At first, they may fear that sooner or later the teacher will revert to form and begin administering punishments for behavior that had been forbidden in all their previous experiences. When punishments fail to appear, these students may decide that the teacher is just a "weak sister" and unable to tell them "what to do." Such confusion may be avoided if the teacher helps students to understand the underlying philosophy back of the experiences in teacher-student sharing.

Beginning where students are. In traditional teaching, students begin at the beginning of a "course," the first page of the textbook, or at a point determined by the teacher. In planning *with* students, the teacher begins where students are. In organizing school experiences that provide for firsthand participation in sharing, the teacher begins at the point that pupils have reached through previous development. This will vary with individuals and groups. Some will have achieved attitudes and skills of co-operative sharing even before reaching the early years of secondary school; others may not reach this stage of maturation until college. In any case, the teacher should begin at the point of growth toward skill in group living at which he finds the individual student.

1. Discovering student development. In order to begin where students are the teacher will need, first of all, to find out the status of their development. This can be done by asking the students to describe enjoyable experiences that contributed to their understanding of democratic living. Or it may be accomplished by observing students in their relationships to each other as they begin working together. Sometimes simple check-lists of skills mastered may be helpful to the teacher in ascertaining growth stages. The teacher, when it is possible and convenient, should talk with former teachers in order to obtain anecdotes that reveal the level of growth of individuals and of the group as a whole. The school cumulative record is a rich source of information relative to the development of social skills in many schools that have placed emphasis upon these aspects of growth.

It will be necessary in most instances, even though the teacher is able to gather much objective evidence relative to the social maturity of members of a group, to make final judgments with respect to the kinds of sharing experiences for which pupils are ready only after having observed students in "tryout" situations within a particular group. Individual students respond differently in various situations. Likewise, groups present different "group personalities." A student who may not have revealed capacity for accepting responsibility in one group, during one semester, may show an entirely different attitude and behavior pattern with respect to co-operation when placed in another group at another time.

2. Relate new activities to past experiences. It is important that the teacher begin with each group by relating new activities to be undertaken to past experiences of members. This can be accomplished when the teacher is thoroughly familiar with those

who compose the group and with their past experiences. It necessitates, also, an acquaintance of the teacher with the interests and needs that are recognized by members of the group.

To begin where students are, the teacher will devote time during the early stages of his relationships with a group to discovering the experiences that students have had and to identifying the levels of social maturity they have achieved. The teacher who makes a textbook assignment upon meeting the class the first time shows little concern for beginning where students are; he has not taken the necessary time to find out. Likewise, the principal who takes pride that in "his" school every student is "down to work" by the end of the second day of classes, reveals that "his" teachers are expected to require pupils to begin with the memorization of abstract assignments unrelated to their previous experiences. In a democratic school, also, pupils will be hard at work from the beginning, but their first efforts will be directed toward the all-important task of getting acquainted with each other and with the teacher in order that actual experiences in learning will become more fruitful in terms of their final contributions to growth and development.

Selecting problems of concern to all. If pupils are to be encouraged to share in a co-operative enterprise, all must have a "stake" in it. It is necessary, therefore, to select experiences that are of common concern to all. When students feel that they are working with others on problems that relate to their concerns as well as those of their classmates, they gain increased incentive for co-operative effort.

By sharing in the process of deciding which problems merit consideration, members of the group, including the teacher, will be able to ascertain the areas of concern that may profitably be pursued. The teacher who is beginning to experiment with teacher-student sharing will find it easier if the initial problem, unit, or experiment is one that provides a genuine challenge to all or most of the members of the group. This is one of the surest guarantees that learning activities will be intrinsically related to the interests and recognized needs of students. Application of this principle will produce results that are noteworthy for the willing participation of the pupils rather than for conformity to the expectations of the teacher.

When students begin with problems with which they are familiar they gain security and increased motivation. Security results, also, from working on tasks whose first steps are familiar

as a result of previous experience. Motivation is a product of the resulting satisfactions. This is an important consideration for the teacher who aims to help pupils learn to share experiences with each other. When students feel secure in what they are doing they find it easier to learn to work co-operatively in mutual helpfulness.

Recognizing personal and institutional limitations. In organizing for sharing it is appropriate for the teacher and other members of the group to recognize at the outset the limitations that are fixed upon the extent to which a group may go in planning and executing learning experiences and in assuming responsibility for its own actions. In the typical school situation two types of limitations exist. If these are recognized at the outset it will help to prevent the development of frustrations later, for members of the group will be aware of their existence and, therefore, will not be disturbed when such influences are felt or become apparent.

1. Personal limitations. Personal limitations that may be present in the members of any group include level of maturation, willingness to work co-operatively, interest in the area of living with which learning is concerned (i.e., mathematics, science, art), interest in individual problems selected for consideration by the group, level of competence in democratic living, emotional blocks to sharing with others, prejudices that promote tensions among individuals, ineffective habits of study, or lack of concern for others.

2. Institutional limitations. In any institution such as a secondary school there exists necessarily certain fixed regulations, procedures, requirements, theories of education, working relationships, or traditional ways of teaching that may become limitations on experiments in shared living in any given class group. At all times it is necessary and desirable to modify any institutional policy or form that tends to limit growth and development toward the goals of education. But in many cases it is impossible to modify such policies soon enough to prevent them from becoming impediments to progress in specific learning situations. Some limitations may be local and hence should not be altered by a single teacher or group to an extent that would interfere with their serving worthwhile and meaningful purposes for others. In any case it is important for members of a group to become aware of the existence of such limitations and to recognize that they may need to make adaptations to them.

Examples of some of the limitations that are usually a part of institutional form include:

a. Definite Area of Study. If students are enrolled in a course in chemistry, they are limited by the subject area in which they are supposed to be studying. They would not be expected, for example, to decide that since they are more in need of experiences in psychology they will drop the study of chemistry and make the class one in psychology. Within the limitations, however, they could discover ways of utilizing psychology in their shared experiences.

b. Limitation of a Time Schedule. Most secondary schools follow definite time schedules. Classes meet for forty-five or sixty minutes daily, for a semester or a year. Although modifications are possible for short periods of time, as for example when a class arranges to spend an entire day or week on a field trip, single groups within a school are limited by the time schedule followed by the entire school.

c. Availability of Materials. It would be unwise for a group to undertake the study of a particular unit for which the available materials were too inadequate to provide satisfactory resources.

d. Necessity of Conforming to School Regulations. Existing rules or policies that relate to such procedures as the assignment of marks, administration of examinations, selection of textbooks, or the reporting of progress represent, in many cases, a type of limitation.

e. Philosophy of the School. Fixed educational attitudes and beliefs of parents, board members, and teachers may become a limitation.

Certain limitations will exist in every situation. These can be dealt with intelligently in such a manner that they do not inhibit progress if teachers recognize them and take realistic steps toward modifying those that can be changed.

Principles of Teacher-Student Sharing

Four basic principles offer guidance to the teacher who is attempting to organize a class group for experiences in teacher-student sharing.

The teacher, as an official agent of the community, retains responsibility for the behavior of the group. No matter how a group is organized and conducted, the community will hold the teacher accountable for the manner in which the group behaves. Gen-

erally, teachers have responded to this responsibility by exercising various degrees of authoritarian control. In our society, however, the teacher is held accountable not only for the responsible conduct of a group of students, but also for fulfilling this responsibility through democratic procedures.

Sometimes teachers have mistakenly believed democratic and laissez-faire procedures to be synonymous. The result in some instances has been the complete relinquishing of responsibilities for leadership by the teacher to the point of permitting students to substitute license for freedom. If the teacher fails to exercise dynamic, responsible, and functional leadership, he is just as guilty of malfeasance of duty as when he employs despotic procedures.

In using the method of teacher-student sharing, the teacher accepts responsibility for leadership. Not only does he serve as a resource, but he actively helps the group make decisions that conform to the best available facts and that lead to intelligent action. He helps the individual and the group to evaluate the effectiveness of action and the extent to which responsibilities have been assumed and consummated. In the democratic classroom, students do not ask that question facetiously attributed to the child in the Progressive School, "Teacher do we have to do what we want to do today?" But rather they face the responsibility of determining what they *need* to do in order to further their own individual growth and to contribute to the achievement of purposes agreed upon by the group. It remains the teacher's inescapable obligation to guide each individual student in the selection and fulfillment of responsibilities related to this end.

It is the right of students to share in all phases of learning experiences within the limitations of their ability. The provision of such experiences for youth in a democratic society is not an optional procedure for teachers. It is not something that teachers do just as a way of varying the method of teaching, nor is it a development that falls under the heading of "ways to keep students interested." Those who recommend the procedure of teacher-student sharing as an easy means of accomplishing goals superimposed by the school and the teacher fail entirely to understand the significance of the relationship of method to the nature of the society. Making it possible for young people to share democratically in the planning and carrying out of learning experiences is a *must* for teachers and a *right* and a *privilege* for youth. The degree to which a young person or group of individuals is able to engage in sharing activities is limited only by ability

to accept responsibility for the consequences of their decisions and actions.

Individuals develop competencies for democratic sharing through experimentation. Adolescence itself is a period of experimentation, a time for "trying out" in order to learn. The secondary school exists for the purpose of furthering this experimentation. Involved in any experimentation is the possibility of error and failure. When experimentation is attempted, it is to be expected that mistakes will be made that result in partial or complete failure at a given moment; but all such experiences must be considered as necessary means to the end of achieving eventual and final success. Young people who are learning to live co-operatively must experiment, and while doing so they must be permitted the corollary resultant of making honest mistakes. When mistakes are made, the sensitive teacher should not condemn the process of experimentation, but recognize that learning is being carried on through natural means. The teacher's function in this respect may be thought of as one of helping students to achieve the greatest possible amount of growth as a result of intelligent and unemotional analyses of their errors and of those of others.

When members of a group default in their responsibilities for sharing in democratic action, despotism thrives. When members of any group become unwilling to assume the responsibilities of shared control, individuals or small groups of individuals inevitably assume or seize control. In school situations where students are unwilling or unable to control their own actions through shared participation, control will be assumed by the teacher, by individual students who "bully" other members of the group, or by cliques of students who seek control for selfish reasons. The penalty for failure to share in any situation is subjugation to despotic control.

There may be times in school situations in which teachers will find it necessary to assume arbitrary control of the actions of members of the group. In a democratic school or in a learning situation in which the teacher is striving to promote democratic ideals and practices, whenever the teacher finds it necessary to assume arbitrary powers, he immediately searches for ways to reestablish shared participation by members of the group. The quality of the leadership in learning situations cannot be judged with respect to whether or not the teacher ever feels forced to exercise external control over members of the group, but rather in terms of

the efforts of the teacher to establish and maintain a climate of shared relationships and responsibilities that will permit democratic quality of action to be continually increased.

Procedures for Sharing

Procedures for organizing for sharing are just as definite and practical as those commonly followed in authoritarian classrooms. Those who are striving to develop a quality of teaching compatible with democratic ideals and principles can learn the procedures that further sharing as readily as they can learn others. The reason that more teachers have not been concerned with developing procedures that permit organizing for shared experiences lies not in the difficulty of such procedures but in the fact that teachers have not been aware of the importance of providing this type of experiences for adolescent youth.

Providing co-ordination—a function of teaching. In organizing for sharing activities, the teacher plays the role of a co-ordinator or guide. As such, he functions as what has been called in the field of group development a "change agent" for helping groups of individuals to identify purposes, plan activities, analyze the results of action, and make changes with respect to goals to be attained. It is the teacher's function to see that the class organization permits sharing to take place. He also helps all members of the group to achieve satisfactory participation in group activities.

As a member of the group the teacher also participates in the sharing process. Learning experiences are engaged in by both the teacher and students. There does not exist a situation in which the teacher is telling others what to do, but rather, one in which the teacher is helping students decide what needs to be done and who will best be able to perform needed tasks for the group.

The function of teaching is that of helping groups discover and develop within their memberships the leadership and the skills necessary for the achievement of recognized goals. The teacher may perform functions that are too difficult for other members of the group until such time as individuals within the group learn to perform them. The process of co-ordination suggests that the teacher will be helping to initiate activities, helping students to develop skill necessary for carrying out activities, and helping students to judge the worth of their own contributions and creations. It suggests that the teacher will be continually assisting students to learn to do new things, learn to work in new ways, and learn new ways to express creativeness. It means that, as contrasted

to the narrow uniformity of the authoritarian school in which the students learn to do only that which the teacher knows how to do, democratic teaching will stimulate growth and experiences that may go far beyond the background and particular abilities of the teacher.

Identifying tasks to be accomplished. One of the most important procedures in organizing for sharing experiences is that of identifying the tasks to be accomplished, that of deciding the nature of the study activities that seem most likely to contribute to both individual and group purposes. As has been pointed out earlier, this process is one that permits and necessitates co-operative planning. Usually when students are encouraged to share in the process of deciding which study activities are likely to be most contributive to the realization of their purposes, they find many ingenious and creative avenues of experience that are both meaningful and interesting to various members of the group. Some of the suggestions offered may be impractical or even impossible for the level of maturity represented by the members of the group; others may be entirely unrelated to the purposes to be served. If students are permitted and encouraged, however, to evaluate the practicability of such proposals, they will gain valuable experience and increasing ability to determine their usefulness.

Allocating responsibilities. The next step in planning for sharing is that of allocating responsibilities to various members of the group. The important thing to remember in helping students to decide who should perform a given task is that of determining (1) who is best able to perform the task; and (2) who needs to develop skill in the processes involved in the task. Allocating responsibilities should be a co-operative procedure performed by the group in terms of the best interests of the group as a whole and of the needs of individual members who compose the group.

In allocating responsibilities it should be kept in mind that the source of delegated responsibilities resides in the group and in the goals sought by a collection of individuals. As a result, the individual accepting tasks is responsible to the group rather than to the teacher. He must be responsible to the group for the manner in which he performs his job, and from the group he receives his reward in the form of approval. The teacher functions as a participating member of the group.

A real measure of the democratic quality of a group lies in the degree to which responsibility, commensurate authority, and freedom of action for the performance of a task are delegated. If the teacher retains the authority for responsibilities that grow

out of group work, it is an indication that full provision for sharing has not been made.

Concept of study. Every learning situation involves participation in activities that contribute to the process of changing behavior. The carrying out of such activities is referred to as "studying." The term *study* usually implies reading an assignment in a book. Study, as it is related to the definition of learning supported in this book, connotes a broader meaning than that traditionally ascribed to it.

For our purposes *study is defined as the search for the solution of a recognized problem or for the satisfaction of a recognized need.* Whenever an individual attempts to solve a problem he recognizes as important or when he seeks to achieve the satisfaction of a need, he is studying. Anything an individual may do to achieve these ends may be justly considered as studying, whether it be reading, seeing a motion picture film, interviewing another person, performing an experiment, conducting a community survey, listening to a radio program, or going on a field trip. The important concept in this definition lies in its emphasis upon the individual's recognizing the problem or feeling the need. In the light of this definition many of the so-called study activities in traditional secondary schools do not merit the label since such activities often are carried on in pursuit of problems that have not been recognized or accepted by pupils to whom they are assigned.

Types of Organization for Shared Action

Types of organization that class groups have found useful in arranging themselves for sharing in learning experiences include both formal and informal structures for the group and for subcommittees of the group.

Formal organization. Early efforts to develop the method of teaching called the socialized recitation placed considerable emphasis upon a type of class organization quite formal in nature. In this kind of organization members of the class usually draw up a simple constitution to govern class activities. Generally, student officers are elected to serve for a given length of time, a week, month, or six-week period. The class president presides over the group when it meets; the secretary keeps minutes of class discussions; the librarian is in charge of the classroom library; a bulletin board committee has responsibility for seeing that this teaching aid is used effectively in accordance with the topics being studied

by the group; and other special committees perform functions basic to group needs.

Guided by its formal arrangement, the class is conducted according to accepted rules of order and follows a similar pattern regardless of who serves as chairman for the group. The teacher, as a guide and consultant, assists the student chairman and other officers as they learn how to conduct the class, aiding whenever help is needed during the class period. In addition, the teacher is available to work with the special committees on class projects while student officers assume responsibility for the general conduct of the group.

Formal voting is the common manner of decision-making in this type of organization, with the decision of the majority of students determining the course of action to be taken.

Informal organization. Informal organizations for co-operative participation usually grow out of more personal, friendly relationships within a group. Less emphasis is placed upon organizational form and more upon ways of improving human relationships and ways of working in harmonious co-operation. This is thought by some teachers to be a step more advanced than the formal type of organization since it depends for control and the incentive for co-operative effort upon self-discipline or self-direction without having to rely on artificially imposed rules of order.

Generally the teacher, as the group leader, helps the group to organize itself for co-operative action. Whenever the class meets to discuss problems, the teacher may preside; or this function may be performed by any member of the group, depending on the problem under consideration. When particular committees report to the class, the leader or secretary or any designated member of a committee may serve as leader for the entire group.

When records need to be kept, a member or several members of the group are asked to perform this service. At another time someone else may be selected for the recording function. Similar procedures are followed in other activities, although the group may choose one person for a prolonged sustained task, such as taking care of the class library, for a specific period of time.

In the informal type of organization emphasis is placed upon helping all members of the group to participate in all kinds of activities. Members of the group move readily from one function to another and assist each other to learn skills that make a flexible arrangement of this sort possible.

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tion but not in accordance with a class constitution that defines exactly the number of members, length of service, or specific functions for each, as is frequently the case in the formal pattern of organization.

Whereas the formal type of organization is likely to stress leadership and followership functions, the informal type makes no such distinctions since it adheres to a point of view suggesting that all members both lead and follow in a democratic group.

Types of committee organization. Examples of the kinds of committees that usually result in either the formal or informal types of class organizations suggest the ways in which participation takes place in teacher-student sharing.

1. Planning committee. A group selects a planning committee that plans the organization of group activities. This committee schedules the disposition of the class time and makes decisions relative to the type or types of activity that will concern the entire group. It decides on the schedule of events and approves field trips and dates for audio-visual experiences or any other activities that effect the entire group. This committee co-ordinates the work of other committees and may at times be composed of representatives of all of them. Plans developed by the planning committee usually are approved or modified by the entire class group.

2. Resource committee. Such a committee searches for resources for learning that may be used by various members and committees of the class. It may, for example, preview films to the end of choosing those that will be useful in relation to the problems selected for consideration by the group. It may also make a list of resources in the community that may be employed in connection with various aspects of the problems under consideration. It usually locates library materials, and it may frequently be called on to construct illustrative materials and equipment for class projects.

3. Committee on human relations. This committee is usually charged with studying the quality of personal relationships within a class group. It may plan social experiences designed to help members of the group learn to know each other better. Usually it assumes responsibility for the orientation of new members and strives in various ways to promote group rapport.

4. Evaluation committee. Frequently groups appoint a committee to serve as a continuing evaluating committee. Members of this committee act as observers and attempt to judge the worth of various learning experiences in which members of the class engage. They provide leadership to the group in evaluating

various projects and units of work in terms of the objectives previously established. Their functions usually involve evaluation of the effectiveness of activities of the total group in terms of the competencies that members of the group seek to achieve.

5. Committees related to specific units or areas of activity. Whatever the group may be studying, it will find use for committees formed in terms of specific units or areas of concern. Such committees conduct studies, make surveys, organize materials, and present to other members of the group the knowledge they have developed. They are temporary in nature in that they exist for a specific purpose, and when that purpose has been accomplished they are disbanded.

These examples are typical of the wide variety of committee arrangements that are possible under either the formal or informal type of class organization for teacher-student sharing. Each group, if permitted sufficient freedom and responsibility, will find ways of organizing itself in order to accomplish results important to its own members. The teacher, serving as a resource, will have numerous opportunities to help members of the group decide the particular kind of committees that may be most useful in given situations.

Summary

Teacher-student sharing, as a method of teaching, places emphasis upon all aspects of learning—purposing, planning, executing, and evaluating. This type of teaching is based on such factors as learning by doing; the significance of group rapport; the need for self-motivation; the maintenance of adjustment; satisfying the needs of youth; the broad unit approach; the concept of teaching as a process of guidance, concern for individual differences; and the development of social competence.

Teacher-student sharing should be initiated by working cooperatively with other teachers within a school system. Certain "first steps" will be helpful in introducing this method of teaching. More, rather than less, pre-planning is necessary in order to carry on co-operative sharing during the learning process. Although it is possible to analyze the nature of teacher-student sharing with respect to the various steps of the learning process, no exact differentiation can be made between the stages of purposing, planning, executing, and evaluating.

In organizing for sharing, the teacher will undertake to create a social climate that encourages sharing, make an effort to begin

where students are, and seek to recognize personal and institutional limitations. Principles that offer direction to the development of teacher-student sharing as a method of teaching emphasize the responsibility of the teacher, the right of students to participate, the fact that competency for democratic sharing is developed only as an outcome of active experimentation by the student, and the urgency of not permitting some form of arbitrary direction to impinge upon groups that default in assuming responsibility for democratic action.

Procedures involved in the process of teacher-student sharing include provision for co-ordination—as a function of the teacher; identification of tasks to be accomplished; and allocation of responsibilities to members of the group. These procedures may be carried out through a type of class organization that is either formal or informal.

Each type of organization depends on some form of committee development that permits co-operative participation by all members of the group.

Related Experiences

1. If the films are available, arrange for a showing of the following:

A Broader Concept of Method (Part I, 22 minutes; Part II, 22 minutes: sound). McGraw-Hill Test Film, 330 West 42nd Street, New York, N. Y. A film showing how one teacher reconstructed his approach to teaching in such manner that recognition was given to the interests and problems recognized by students and provision was made for teacher-pupil sharing in the process of developing classroom learning experiences.

University School (22 minutes: silent, with accompanying recording). Produced by The University School of The Ohio State University in 1943. This film depicts aspects of the program of The University School at The Ohio State University from kindergarten through grade 12. It illustrates how a school committee undertook to develop a democratic philosophy of education and a functional, co-operative approach to learning.

2. If you are not already following such procedure arrange with your instructor for an experiment in teacher-student sharing within your own group of prospective teachers. Keep in mind the suggestions made for the introduction of this method of teaching.

3. Make a tabulation of the number of prospective teachers in your group who in high school or college were privileged to participate in

teacher-student sharing. Ask members who have had such experiences to describe them.

4. Locate in a secondary school near the institution you are attending teachers who use the method of teacher-student sharing. Arrange to observe one or two of those who do, and analyze what you observe with other members of your training group.

5. Arrange for members of your group to read the descriptions of teacher-student sharing or teacher-pupil planning included in the references to this chapter and report them to other members of the group.

Suggested Readings

ALBERTY, HAROLD, *Reorganizing the High-School Curriculum.* New York: The Macmillan Co., 1947, Chapter 12, "Curriculum Reorganization Through Teacher-Student Planning," pp. 337–375.

BAXTER, BERNICE, AND CASSIDY, ROSALIND, *Group Experience.* New York: Harper and Brothers, 1943, 218 pp.

BINGHAM, ALFRED M., *The Techniques of Democracy.* New York: Duell, Sloan and Pearce, Inc., 1942, 314 pp.

Department of Supervision and Curriculum Development, *Group Planning in Education.* Washington, D. C.: National Educational Association, 1945, 153 pp.

Educational Policies Commission, *Learning the Ways of Democracy.* Washington, D. C., National Education Association, 1940, 486 pp.

GILES, H. H.; MCCUTCHEN, S. P.; AND ZECHIEL, A. N., *Exploring the Curriculum.* New York: Harper and Brothers, 1942, Chapter 4, pp. 102–157.

GILES, H. H. *Teacher-Pupil Planning.* New York: Harper and Brothers, 1941, 395 pp.

HOLLINGSHEAD, ARTHUR D., *Guidance in Group Living.* New York: D. Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1941, 260 pp.

HOPKINS, L. THOMAS, *Interaction: The Democratic Process.* Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1941, 490 pp.

HUSZAR, GEORGE B. DE, *Practical Applications of Democracy.* New York: Harper and Brothers, 1945, 140 pp.

KOOPMAN, ROBERT G., and others, *Democracy in School Administration.* New York: D. Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1943, 330 pp.

Michigan Study of the Secondary School Curriculum, *Youth Learns to Assume Responsibility.* Lansing, Michigan: State Department of Education, 1944.

Progressive Education Association, *Thirty Schools Tell Their Story.* New York: Harper and Brothers, 1942, 802 pp.

UMSTATTD, J. G., *B. A. U. in Action.* Austin, Texas: University of Texas Press, 1947, Chapter 4, pp. 49–80.

WESTON, GRACE, and others, *Democratic Citizenship and Development of Children.* Detroit, Michigan: Citizenship Education Study, 1949, 43 pp.

Chapter 14

EXAMPLES OF TEACHER-STUDENT SHARING

Illustrate ways in which the results of both action and experimental research support teacher-student sharing as a method of teaching. . . . What major studies have been concerned with the success of democratic methods? . . . Present evidence that teacher-student sharing can be adapted to various subject fields of the secondary school curriculum. . . . What studies have demonstrated that students learn even more subject matter when permitted to share with the teacher the responsibilities for developing their learning experiences? . . . Cite the evidence that supports the assumption that students prefer the democratic teacher. . . . Choose from the examples of teacher-student sharing those in which students participated in the following phases of teaching: purposing, planning, executing, evaluating. . . . Select an anecdotal incident that illustrates how a beginning teacher may initiate teacher-student sharing. . . . How may forms for recording group activities be helpful to the teacher in guiding co-operative activity? . . . Identify incidents that illustrate how the teacher should assume responsibility for securing respect for the opinion of the minority of a group. . . . Describe ways illustrated by the incidents in this chapter in which groups of students seriously studied problems that were of interest and concern to them.

Results of informal and experimental research in addition to anecdotal descriptions of teaching illustrate the success of teacher-student planning. Brief summaries of several research studies that have been related to the effectiveness of this method are presented to illustrate the type of objective evidence that supports its effectiveness.

Results of Research Support Teacher-Student Sharing

Research related to teaching method has been generally concerned with such factors as making assignments, administering discipline, the ability to "put across" a subject, and skill in classroom management.[1] A considerable amount of research, however, is coming to be concerned with such factors as teacher-student relationships, effect of different patterns of teaching upon student growth in attitudes and social behavior, and the quality and character of democratic methods of teaching as compared with traditional procedures.

Samples of evidence that support the argument for teacher-student sharing as a method of teaching are found in the results of action research, scientifically controlled experiments and in the attitudes of students toward democratic methods of teaching and co-operative relationships between the teacher and students.

Evidence from action research.[2] Efforts to translate educational theory into action in practical school situations are coming to be called action research. Unlike experimental research that always involves comparisons of experimental and non-experimental factors in a controlled or laboratory situation, action research involves trying out given procedures in natural, normal situations.

Action research is employed by teachers when they experiment in their classrooms with various approaches to co-operative participation between themselves and their students. Results are usually measured in terms of immediate or delayed responses of the teacher and students. Whereas experimental research stresses the measurement of outcomes, the emphasis in action research is centered on the "way" in which objectives are achieved. Evidence is gathered in action research through observations, questionnaires, social-distance or work-acceptance scales, group and individual diaries, and by the use of various types of subject-matter tests. The actual control factor in action research is the status quo of existing practices since the success or failure of experimentation is judged in terms of its superiority to traditional procedures.

[1] A. S. Barr and others, *The Measurement and Prediction of Teaching: A Summary of Investigations.* Madison, Wisconsin: Dembar Publications, Inc., The National Society of College Teachers of Education (Reprinted from the Journal of Experimental Education), June, 1948, 283 pp.

[2] For a description of action research see Max Goodson, "Action Research in Education," *The Graduate School Record,* The Ohio State University, 1:3–6, July, 1948.

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Evidence supporting teacher-student sharing as a method is found in the extensive experiment carried on by thirty secondary schools under the sponsorship of the Progressive Education Association.[3] Those familiar with this experiment will remember that its purpose was to discover better ways of preparing high school youth for college.[4] The results showed that students who had benefited by experimental methods of teaching and reorganized curricular and guidance procedures developed by the thirty participating schools demonstrated greater competence for adjustment in college than did students of comparable abilities and backgrounds who had received their high school training in traditional secondary schools.[5]

Although much of the experimentation conducted in these thirty schools was related to curriculum reorganization, considerable attention was given to the improvement of teaching method. It is significant that seventeen of the schools reported that "pupil-teacher planning" had been employed extensively in the reorganization of learning experiences. Of interest are sample reports of the value of teacher-student sharing (called pupil-teacher planning throughout the report of the Eight-Year Study). The New Trier Township High School of Winnetka, Illinois, reported:[6]

> We are convinced that the pupil-teacher planning method and small group activity have been effective and have provided greater motivation. We are confident that the outcomes in understandings, attitudes, appreciations, and skill in making generalizations have been significant.
>
> All this has been revealed in three ways: (1) by increased sensitivity to correctness of expression; (2) by increased interest in science, as shown by the fact that more students elected science in their second year than has ever been the case before; (3) growth in co-operative productive enterprise.

Although officials of the Denver high schools found that some teachers misunderstood the function of pupil-teacher planning and tended to blame students for their own misconceptions, an

[3] Progressive Education Association, *Thirty Schools Tell Their Story*. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1942, 802 pp.

[4] Wilford M. Aikin, *The Story of the Eight-Year Study*. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1942, 157 pp.

[5] Charles Dean Chamberlin, *Did They Succeed in College?* New York: Harper and Brothers, 1942, 291 pp.

[6] Progressive Education Association, *op. cit.*

evaluation of the success of this method revealed that teachers who used it reported that pupil-teacher planning had the effect of:[7]

1. Encouraging of initiative, originality, and independence in pupils.
2. Becoming a means to answering immediate needs.
3. Offering fine opportunity for guidance.
4. Providing motivation.
5. Making for democratic co-operation and social responsibility.
6. Developing foresight and resourcefulness.
7. Giving a chance for individualization.
8. Developing more interesting people.
9. Teaching a technique for making choices.
10. Encouraging appreciation for the abilities of others and for opportunities within the school.

The Baldwin School at Bryn Mawr, Pennsylvania, in stating its aims reported the following to the commission:[8]

As the students go through the school, we stress increasingly at each age level three general aims; a way of living in which all members share; a way of living in which the individual student's interests and development and unique personality are made the center of her course of study; and a way of living in which social concerns permeate all phases of her activity.

The Eagle Rock High School, Los Angeles, California, evaluated its efforts toward utilizing the method of teacher-pupil planning as follows:[9]

Teacher-pupil planning vitalizes classroom experiences. Pupils have a large and increasing share in planning and carrying on their school-work. Through this co-operative procedure, where the teacher acts as a leader, guide, and counselor, motivation for serious study is not difficult to supply.

In 1940, about the time that the Eight-Year Study was being completed, the Educational Policies Commission reported several additional experiments with Teacher-Student Sharing under the heading, "Participation of All in Planning, Executing and Evaluating."[10] This report stressed that "the school of democratic citizenship will . . . see to it that all students have opportunities to

[7] *Ibid.*, p. 183.
[8] *Ibid.*, p. 21.
[9] *Ibid.*, p. 262.
[10] Educational Policies Commission, *Learning the Ways of Democracy*. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1940, pp. 148–171.

share in democratic group planning and that they grow steadily in their mastery of this skill." [11]

A similar although more extensive report was published by Giles [12] in which an analysis was made of the characteristics of democratic method and of the process of pupil participation. In addition to describing a successful experiment with teacher-student sharing in The University School of The Ohio State University, the writer presents extensive descriptions of similar experiments in a number of other secondary schools.

Examples of this type of action research are reported by Alberty [13] in illustration of the contribution of teacher-student planning to curriculum reorganization. Further illustration of the effectiveness of co-operative procedures is found in a description by Klein [14] of the group planning by students, parents, and teachers of the Harrison, New York, High School in organizing a functional school and community association.

Evidence from experimental research. One of the early reported experiments with teacher-student sharing as a method of teaching was conducted by Fawcett [15] in a high school course in geometry. This study was designed to develop and validate a method of teaching that would lead the pupil to understand the nature of deductive proof through the study of geometric situations and help the individual generalize this experience so that effective transfer would result.

Instead of beginning the study of geometry in the usual manner, by learning and applying geometric theorems, the 25 students in this group worked co-operatively with the instructor to develop their own definitions and assumptions. Throughout this experiment the development of teaching procedures was guided by four basic assumptions:

1. A senior high school student has reasoned and reasoned accurately before he begins the study of demonstrative geometry.
2. He should have the opportunity to reason about the subject matter of geometry in his own way.

[11] *Ibid.*, p. 149.

[12] H. H. Giles, *Teacher-Pupil Planning*. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1941, 395 pp.

[13] Harold Alberty, *Reorganizing the High-School Curriculum*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1947, pp. 352–374.

[14] Louis M. Klein, "A Different Kind of High School PTA," *School Board Journal*, 118:37, April, 1949.

[15] Harold P. Fawcett, *The Nature of Proof*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, The Thirteenth Yearbook, The National Council of Teachers of Mathematics, 1938, 146 pp.

3. The logical processes which should guide the development of the work are those of the student and not those of the teacher.

4. Opportunity should be provided for the application of the postulational method to nonmathematical material.

Evaluation of the growth of students during this experience was based upon the following:

1. A record of scores made by pupils on the Ohio Every-Pupil Test in plane geometry.

2. The results of paper-and-pencil tests on the nature of proof applied to nonmathematical situations.

3. Contributions of students illustrating situations to which habits of thought (developed in their study of the nature of proof) had transferred.

4. Parents' observations concerning improvement in the critical thinking of their child.

5. A record of six observations made by college seniors.

6. Students' observations concerning improvement in their ability to think critically.

Results of various forms of evaluation indicated that these pupils, even though they had not attempted to "cover" the formal subject matter of plane geometry, knew at least as much about subject matter as did other students who had studied the subject in more formal ways. The median score for the experimental group fell between the 80th and 90th percentiles for scores of 2772 students in the State of Ohio who had likewise taken the Ohio Every-Pupil Test in this subject. Pupils who had been privileged to experience this method of teaching were found to demonstrate their ability to employ habits of thinking developed in their study of the "nature of proof" to numerous situations outside the classroom (e.g., in analyzing current advertisements; by helping clarify discussion in other classes; and, in out-of-school situations, through pointing out conflicts in definitions, by analyzing editorials, magazine and newspaper articles, and sermons of ministers). Parents, pupils, and observers were enthusiastic about the value of this type of teaching as compared with the traditional approach of requiring students to memorize existing materials.

An extensive controlled experiment, reported by Anderson and others,[16] shows that the effect of a teacher's relationship to pupils is "circular" in terms of behavior exhibited by members of a stu-

[16] Harold H. Anderson, Joseph E. Brewer, and Mary F. Reed, *Studies of Teachers' Classroom Personalities*, III, American Psychological Association. Stanford University Press, 1946, 156 pp.

dent group. It was found, for example, if the teacher displays tendencies to dominate, students likewise will show aggressive characteristics in their inter-personal behavior. When the teacher uses co-operative relationships with students, they in turn tend to develop tendencies toward wholesome, congenial co-operation with other members of the group. These results are in agreement with those obtained through the study of the effect of autocratic, democratic and laissez-faire social climates upon the behavior and adjustment of adolescent boys.[17] In club groups in which the controlled leadership was characteristically autocratic the amount of hostility between members was 30 times as great as it was for the democratically led groups. Open aggression was eight times more frequent in the autocratic atmosphere as it was in the democratic atmosphere. As compared to the autocratic and laissez-faire groups the democratic groups were characterized by friendly, objective, co-operative fact-finding behavior.

Thelen [18] compared the results of an experimental group taught by the method of teacher-sharing with a control group following traditional procedures in the study of freshman chemistry in college. This study revealed that the students in the experimental group made superior progress both in terms of the amount of chemistry learned and retained and with respect to demonstrated ability to think critically about problems in chemistry. The experimental group used methods involving (1) class evaluation of learning objectives of each activity; (2) thorough understanding and planning of procedures used; (3) use of sound scientific procedures in solving problems; (4) performance and participation with understanding; and (5) critical consideration of procedures.

When the goals of secondary school teaching are social competency in a democratic society, the evidence is overwhelmingly in favor of teacher-student sharing as compared with such methods as the recitation and the lecture. Even when the retention of subject matter is the criterion by which the success of method is judged, evidence, such as that produced by the Eight-Year Study and the studies conducted by Fawcett and Thelen, indicate that students do equally well or better when permitted to share democratically in the development of their learning experiences.

Evidence that students prefer the democratic teacher. Results

[17] Kurt Lewin, Ronald Lippitt, and Ralph K. White, "Patterns of Aggressive Behavior in Experimentally Created Social Climates," *The Journal of Social Psychology*, 10:271–299, May, 1939.

[18] Herbert A. Thelen, "A Methodological Study of the Learning of Chemical Concepts and of Certain Abilities to Think Critically in Freshman Chemistry," *Journal of Experimental Education*, 13:53–75, September, 1944.

of several studies support the belief that students prefer a teacher who is genuinely democratic in his relationships with them and who is sincerely interested in the problems, needs, and interests of young people.

Reference has been made to one of the most extensive studies concerning attitudes of high school students with respect to qualities desired in teachers.[19] Results of the study, which was made in 66 widely distributed high schools, indicated that of the ten traits preferred in the best-liked teachers, the first four in order of preference were (1) helpfulness with schoolwork; (2) cheerfulness, happy disposition; (3) human, friendly, companionable attitude; and (4) an interest in and an understanding of pupils.

A study by Bousfield [20] indicated that of the traits college students found preferable for college professors, "interest in students" ranked first over twenty different qualities mentioned.

Results of three other studies [21] show that the teacher who knows his students best and is concerned with the problems and interests of individual students is the teacher judged as superior by pupils, supervisors, and principals.

Witty's [22] study of 47,000 letters by students in grades 1–12 describing the teacher who helped them most showed that the most frequently mentioned positive trait of teachers was a "co-operative democratic attitude." Second on the list in terms of positive mention was "kindliness and consideration of the individual."

Tiedeman [23] reported a study of the characteristics liked and disliked in teachers by 450 seventh-, eighth-, and ninth-grade junior high school pupils. The results indicated that the autocratic, domineering teacher was disliked most and that the degree of dislike for such teacher behavior increased in proportion to the age of the pupils reporting. This fact illustrates the readiness

[19] See page 54.

[20] Weston Ashmore Bousfield, "Students' Rating of Qualities Considered Desirable in College Professors," *School and Society*, 51:253–56, Feb. 24, 1940.

[21] Wilbur B. Brookover, "Person-Person Interaction Between Teachers and Pupils and Teaching Effectiveness," *Journal of Educational Research*, 34:272–87, Dec., 1940. Robert N. Bush, "A Study of Student-Teacher Relationships," *Journal of Educational Research*, 35:645–56, May, 1942. R. H. Ojeman and F. R. Wilkinson, "The Effect on Pupil Growth of an Increase in Teacher Understanding of Pupil Behavior," *Journal of Experimental Education*, 8:143, December, 1939.

[22] Paul A. Witty, "Evaluation of Studies of the Characteristics of the Effective Teacher," published in the Official Report of the American Educational Research Association, *Improving Educational Research*. Washington, D. C.: American Educational Research Association, 1948, pp. 198–204.

[23] Stuart C. Tiedeman, "A Study of Pupil-Teacher Relationships," *Journal of Educational Research*, 35:657–664, May, 1942.

of youth to accept teaching procedures characterized by co-operative shared relationships between the teacher and students.

Anecdotal Examples of Teacher-Student Sharing in Various Subject Fields and at Different Levels of the Secondary School

Anecdotal descriptions of teacher-student sharing included in this section illustrate a number of ways in which this method may be initiated and developed. In some cases the incidents represent initial attempts by teachers to develop co-operative planning with students; other examples are drawn from the experiences of teachers who have been experimenting with democratic procedures for a number of years. All examples are taken from true situations, although it has been necessary to condense descriptions of the teaching process and to select incidents that typify broader and more extensive teacher-student activities.

Beginning Teacher-Student Sharing In a Junior High School English Class.

Thirty-three ninth-grade pupils had for the first six weeks of the school year plodded laboriously through a course in English as established by their teacher in an effort to achieve the objective stated for them by their teacher during the first meeting of the group—to improve their ability to think critically and logically and to communicate effectively. Although three or four members of the group had shown signs of developing some of the skills that were being encouraged by the instructor, perhaps 20 members of the class tended merely to "go through the motions" of performing assigned learning activities while the remaining students were beginning to display almost complete boredom and lack of willingness to do assigned tasks.

Confronted by this situation and realizing that little actual learning related to the conceived goals of the course was taking place, the instructor, whom we shall call Mr. Jones, almost in desperation decided to face the situation by inviting students to help him determine what was wrong.

One Wednesday morning the class meeting began with Mr. Jones saying, "We are not going to go ahead with the assignment I made yesterday. Instead, I want first to make an apology to the entire class and then ask your help. When we started this course I naively assumed that all of you would simply jump at an opportunity to learn to improve your ability to speak and to write ideas. Having learned, myself, through years of practice the value of effective communication, I expected you to be equally interested. When I first started making assign-

ments all of you carried them out promptly and for awhile most of you seemed to make an effort to improve; but lately I find that instead of getting more interested in what we are supposed to be doing, a considerable number of students must be compelled to do their work. I have given this matter considerable thought and have reached the conclusion that this condition is my fault, not yours. When I examined what I have been doing, I decided that I have been trying to force you to do what I want you to do—and apparently you don't like it. For this, let me apologize to each of you individually and to all of you as a group. We are going to stop right here to see if we can, working together cooperatively, find a better way of doing things. Do any of you have any ideas that will help?"

At first the students were relieved not to have to continue the lesson but were wary of Mr. Jones's motives. His tactics were so unusual that many were at a loss to think of another way of working together.

One student remarked, "I know English is important; my dad tells me so almost every night, but I just can't seem to get interested in it."

Another commented, "It is not all your fault, Mr. Jones; this class is better than some of the others I have."

After much talk, students began to feel free to express opinions. A boy who had not said much contributed, "Maybe it would help if we could write about things that are happening here in school like football and parties—things we like."

This idea was helpful. Mr. Jones agreed that perhaps the list of themes he had suggested did not appeal to all members of the group. Other suggestions were made by students among which was the proposal that the class could start a school newspaper in order that what members wrote would be actually published for others to read. This seemed to make sense to most members of the group.

One boy said, "The newspaper is the best idea we have had. We could help the school by publishing a school paper. Those who wanted to write stories could; others would be needed to help with selling and writing ads."

The class period ended with the suggestion from Mr. Jones that they all think over the proposal for the newspaper for a day or two as a possible class project. His last remarks were, "Of one thing I am certain, Whatever we do, we are going to do it because all of us want to do it. I am through trying to force you to do what I want."

At the beginning of the class period the following day students were enthusiastic about publishing the paper. Mr. Jones reported that the school principal had agreed that if they decided they wanted to try such a project it might prove to be a worthwhile contribution to the school as a whole which at that time had no school newspaper.

One student summarized the enthusiasm of members of the group by saying, "I've already sold an ad. Smith's Drug Store will buy one every week."

With no encouragement students began a steady flow of proposals

for advertisements, stories, editorials, joke columns, titles, and page make-up. For a time suggestion piled upon suggestion. Ideas flowed freely with every member of the group gaining a chance to contribute.

Out of such a climate of permissiveness one student asked, "Won't we need to have some type of organization? We'll want an editor and a business manager, won't we?"

Another ventured, "Mr. Jones, may we elect the editor by vote?"

After considerable discussion about the type of organization necessary and with the teacher agreeing that it would be a good idea for members of the group to choose both the type of organization and the students to perform certain tasks within the organization, the suggestion was made by one girl that it might be a good idea to find out more about publishing a newspaper before setting about electing people to jobs. She clinched the argument with the thought, "We might elect a person to a job that he wouldn't want or couldn't do well, and then he would not feel like working hard."

The second class meeting after the "reformation" ended with members of the group deciding to take a few days to find out how newspapers were published and the various jobs that were related to this task. It was agreed that on the following day, Friday, they would plan together their introductory study of newspapers.

Friday's class period began with Charles, a student who had never been much interested in reading, suggesting, "Let's all visit the local daily newspaper to see how it is run. That is the best way to learn what actually happens. It's better than reading about newspapers in books."

After a field trip to the newspaper office had been agreed on, members of the group decided to select a committee to be in charge of arranging for the trip. Mr. Jones, who by this time was beginning to have faith in shared experiences, rejected a proposal that he appoint the members of the field trip committee with the comment, "Wait a minute! We are getting along pretty well so far by working together as a team. Why shouldn't we all help select the people who will do this job for the group. Which ones do you think would be able to do this well for us?"

The field trip committee was elected and given instructions by members of the group relative to its responsibilities. In addition, before the class period was over, a second committee was selected to confer with the school business manager on the cost of paper and materials. Two students were delegated to arrange a conference with the business education teacher to ask whether it would be possible for some of the students who were also members of the first-year typing class to learn how to cut stencils in order that the class newspaper could be mimeographed. Another group was assigned the responsibility of asking the principal if the English class would be permitted to sell the newspaper to other students in order to defray part of publication costs. Two students had agreed to write to other schools for sample copies of their mimeographed school newspapers. All of these plans necessitated

keeping records of who was to do what. In order to keep plans straight, two students were elected as project secretaries and were asked to keep notes on all plans made by the group.

Mr. Jones, the teacher who had previously devoted his time and energy to trying to force or entice students to do his assignments, was beginning to find that whereas students previously had avoided him, they now were pressing him into service of helping them with their plans. Instead of the taskmaster he had been—just four days before—he was already becoming accepted as a guide and resource person. In just three days of honest, group deliberation that started when the teacher had apologized to the group for his authoritarian approach to teaching and had appealed sincerely for help from his students, teacher-student sharing had been introduced as a method of teaching.

Members of a Related Arts Class Agree Upon Behaviors Appropriate to a Field Trip.[24]

The two o'clock class in related arts was planning a trip to the community art gallery where an exhibition of young peoples' work had recently opened. The decision to make the trip had been made on the basis of interest of members of the group in the exhibit. A class committee had, with the help of the instructor, arranged for transportation via the public bus system.

The group was engaged in a lively discussion of personal responsibility for appropriate behavior on the bus and while at the art gallery. The problem of agreeing upon behavior suited to the occasion was discussed frankly and openly. Such comments as these were typical:

"Joe, you embarrassed all of us on our last trip by whistling at every girl you passed. Unless you agree to act better today, none of us will want to walk with you!"

"All you girls get together in the back of the bus and giggle and laugh. You make yourselves and our group conspicuous," one of the boys complained.

"We shouldn't take over the entire bus just because there are so many of us," suggested another.

"Miss Jones, I'm sometimes the one who does things that embarrass the group. If anything like that happens today will you please remind me? I'll surely try to straighten out."

"Of course, Pete, and your classmates, too, will help you behave the way you want."

"If each of us will assume the responsibility for our own behavior everything will go smoothly, and we will be proud of ourselves when we get back to school," another student suggested.

"Nevertheless, I think we ought to agree upon how we want to act."

This last suggestion received the support of the class and led to the

[24] Reported by Dorothy Vest Hunter, Instructor of Related Arts, The University School, The Ohio State University.

formulation of agreements relative to behavior on the field trip such as the following:

1. Try to avoid loud talking and pushing and shoving.
2. Break up into small groups—don't gang up.
3. Ask questions politely, and listen while answers are being given.
4. Thank the person from the gallery staff who takes his time to explain the exhibit.
5. Remember to help each other. The other fellow may not realize that he is "getting out of line."

A Class Committee Evaluates a Mathematical Premise.[25]

Members of a senior high school class entitled "Nature of Proof" had divided the class membership into committees for the purpose of studying figures of increasing number of dimensions. Each committee had been asked to demonstrate to others of the group a succinct example of a particular type of figure. The committee concerned with a non-dimensional figure used as an example a *point* in space. A large chart of a single *line* was employed by another group to depict a one-dimensional figure. The surface of the teacher's desk was the example cited by another group to illustrate a figure with two dimensions. A fourth group described *volume* as the figure with the highest number of dimensions (three) that could be comprehended by the human mind.

At the conclusion of the last committee report several students expressed doubt that three-dimensional volume represented the most complex figure the human mind could grasp. Even after a brief abstract consideration of the concept of a four-dimensional figure, this feeling persisted in the minds of four students. The teacher suggested that these members of the class who thought they might be able to demonstrate a four-dimensional figure study it as a committee and report to the group the following week.

After numerous committee meetings, reading of references, an interview with a college professor of mathematics, and two conferences with their instructor, members of the committee announced to the class that they were ready to reveal such an object which they had just received through the mail from a "Science Research Institute" in New York City. When the time for the exhibit of the object came, a large cardboard box was carried into the room by the four students. Members of the class eagerly moved forward to observe. After the box had been opened, two students went through the motions of lifting out of it a large, heavy object. Another member of the committee announced to the group, "You are now observing a four-dimensional figure. If you do not see anything in Bob's and Chuck's hands, then we must conclude that fourth-dimensional objects are beyond human comprehension."

[25] Reported by Sheldon S. Myers, Instructor, The University School, The Ohio State University.

Developing a Guide for Individual and Committee Study in an Eleventh-Grade Core Group.[26]

Previous planning by members of the faculty, students, and parents of students of The University School of The Ohio State University had led to the agreement that direct vocational guidance should logically be a part of the core program for the eleventh grade. Such an intensive consideration of future vocations is conceived as a means of bringing into focus the indirect and incidental vocational guidance that is provided students with increasing emphasis throughout the later elementary and secondary school years.

When the entire problem of vocational study and investigation was presented by the instructor as a possible unifying theme for study, interest was spontaneous. After some elaboration of the importance of such a consideration and of possible learning experiences, members of the group agreed to go ahead with it as a basic unit for core study.

In the first planning session group attention was centered upon determining common experiences for all members of the class. All agreed that learning to work and to hold a job was so important to everyone that this might serve as a center of interest for the entire class. The following learning activities were suggested as avenues to information relative to this problem:

1. Reading books written by personnel experts.
2. Taking trips to various industries in the community.
3. Viewing motion pictures available in the film library.
4. Arranging for representatives of both employer and employee groups to come to tell members of the class about how to learn to work and to hold a job.
5. Interviewing successful workers in order to discover what they consider to be the factors that have contributed to their success.
6. Since a high per cent of the members of the group were interested in preparing for various professions, it was proposed that one or two professional people be invited to discuss with the group (1) how to be successful in preparing for a profession; and (2) how professional people get along with the public when they have to depend upon its patronage.

In addition to the group study, it was proposed that everyone take the responsibility of finding information about the vocations that interested him most. Those who were attracted to the same types of vocations were encouraged to form committees in order that duplication could be avoided and members could assist each other. The following study guide was developed by the class to help individuals and committees discover important information about the vocations studied.

[26] Reported by Harold E. Reynard, Assistant Professor, the University School, The Ohio State University.

1. Nature of the vocation.
   a. What kind of work is involved.
   b. Working conditions.
   c. Working hours.
   d. Safety and danger involved in work.
2. Prestige connected with vocation (such as professions like medicine, law, teaching).
3. Earnings in money.
4. Satisfaction of working in vocation (suited to abilities, disposition, interests).
5. Possibilities for advancement.
6. Training necessary (trade school, college, apprenticeship, etc.).

A final stage of the planning for the unit concerned learning about personal qualifications for various vocations. The instructor offered the suggestion that professional vocational testing and counseling was available to all members of the group through the University Occupational Opportunity Service. After some discussion the group decided that although they favored encouraging members of the class to take advantage of this service it would not be a required experience for all. This decision was reached after one student pointed out, "It won't do any good to take those tests and have the results told to you if you are not really interested in doing so." [27]

A Twelfth-Grade Speech Class Attacks a Practical Social Problem.[28]

After initial efforts to develop a friendly classroom atmosphere and an acquaintance among members of the group, the new instructor and a senior class in speech began the formulation of a plan for learning to be followed during the course. It was agreed that they should devise some procedures that would permit speech skills to contribute to the development of friendly, thinking, working, happy individuals who would cherish and pursue the democratic way of life.

By means of a friendly discussion about the school and problems that disturbed them, the fifteen members of the group revealed a keen interest in the quality of social activities carried on in the laboratory school.

Located in the center of a rural area, the school served as a matriculation center for students who had previously attended rural schools of various sizes. Many of the boys and some of the girls were first introduced to such social customs as dancing, co-recreational games, and dating on first entering the secondary school. Those who had attended

[27] A later evaluation revealed that about 80 per cent of the group availed themselves of the opportunity for vocational counseling service under these circumstances.

[28] Reported by James Rybak, Instructor, Laboratory School, Northwestern Missouri State Teachers College, Maryville, Missouri.

the campus laboratory school throughout their elementary school years had become fairly advanced in their social ambitions; consequently, for most of the new students who entered the laboratory school for the first time at the junior or senior high school level, the transition from their previous social experiences to those engaged in by classmates was too abrupt for wholesome adjustment. In the senior high school these differences in social skills possessed by members of the student body created their greatest problems. Most of the group discussion was concerned with the effect of such differences on school social affairs.

Having recognized that important social problems existed, members of the group agreed that it would be best to resolve the discussion into common threads of concern. Four mutually recognized focal points were accepted as the beginning point for group study:

1. Ways of enjoying school work.
2. How to enjoy social events.
3. How to make social events enjoyable.
4. How to accept a stranger into your group.

This twelfth-grade group had represented in its membership several student leaders in various school activities. The student council president, three members of the council, and five officers of various school clubs were members of the group. Only two boys, however, were in the class. The preponderance of girls undoubtedly conditioned the problems agreed upon by the group. The girls, for example, were especially sensitive to the conduct of boys at school social events. Their greatest concern centered around the oft-found situation in which boys remain on the sidelines at dances and parties without attempting to initiate participation. The two boys in the group pointed out that some fellows don't like to dance, that a person cannot dance until he knows how, and that until he knows how, he does not want to! "Anyway," they reminded, "we don't all like to do the same thing at the same time."

In an early class discussion it was agreed that the sponsoring group for a school party or dance had a broader obligation than that of just arranging the party. It had the further responsibility of helping all guests find suitable activities in which they were interested in participating. This realization led members of the group to conclude that if a social event is to serve the needs of all, pleasurable activities must be provided for all present—even when the occasion might be called a dance.

Immediately a clue to investigation was established. It would be necessary to find out what students liked and disliked about school activities. Steps would have to be taken to obtain suggestions from members of the student body relative to the improvement of social experiences. Efforts would necessarily have to be directed toward discovering more than the experiences of contemporary students since such social background, with all its limitations, might be a major factor in the limited success of many school affairs.

The class therefore organized itself into four committees, each of

1. Group task roles—that participation aimed at facilitating and co-ordinating group effort in the selection, definition, and solution of a common problem.

2. Group building and maintenance roles. This type of participation is related to the functioning of the group itself. Individuals assuming such roles seek ways of altering or maintaining group ways of working. Efforts in this category are directed largely toward perpetuating and improving the group.

3. Individual roles. Participation of this nature is individualistic, being directed toward the satisfaction of the participant's individual needs. Personal goals are accorded precedent by group members over common purposes. Such participation is inconsistent with group efficiency and production.

Types of group task roles. Participation directed toward selection, definition, and solution of group problems was identified in relationship to the contributions made by members toward group problem-solving activities. It should be kept in mind that the types of roles which follow might be assumed by group leaders as well as members of the group. In a democratic group when a group member assumes a group task he is helping perform the function of leadership.[39]

1. The *initiator-contributor* suggests new ideas and ways of working to the group. Suggestions may be related to a different interpretation of the group problem, a procedure that can be employed, or a solution to a group problem.

2. The *information-seeker* asks for factual clarification, for authoritative information, and facts pertinent to the problem being discussed.

3. The *opinion-seeker* searches not only for facts but also for an interpretation of attitudes and values shared by other members of the group.

4. The *information- or opinion-giver* offers "authoritative" facts and personal opinion relative to problems under consideration by the group.

5. The *elaborator* makes suggestions in terms of examples and seeks to predict the results of proposed suggestions or action.

6. The *co-ordinator* shows or clarifies the relationship among various ideas and suggestions and tries to find common elements among them.

7. The *orienter* reviews and defines the position of the group

[39] *Ibid.*, p. 43–44.
Max Goodson, *op. cit.*, p. 180.

with respect to purposes agreed upon and may raise questions relative to the direction in which group discussion is moving.

8. The *evaluator-critic* subjects the accomplishment of the group to some set of standards and raises questions about the logic, practicality or usefulness of a given course of discussion.

9. The *energizer* prods the group to action or decision, attempts to stimulate or arouse the group to action.

Group building and maintenance roles. Participation designed to develop and extend group centered attitudes among members and aimed at furthering group behavior is classified in terms of such roles as the following:

1. The *encourager* accepts the contributions of others, offering commendation and praise and an attitude of understanding toward the ideas and suggestions presented.

2. The *harmonizer* mediates the differences between group members, attempts to reconcile disagreements, and relieves tension in conflict situations, i.e., through jest, harmonious attitude, a congenial approach.

3. The *compromiser,* as contrasted to the harmonizer, operates from within a conflict in which his idea or position is involved. He may offer compromise by yielding status, admitting his error, by disciplining himself to maintain group harmony, or by meeting the other member halfway.

4. The *communication-facilitator* invites the participation of others, attempts to suggest ways of regulating communication among members, i.e., limiting the time each will speak, rotating opportunities to speak.

5. The *standard-setter* or *ego ideal* seeks to propose standards for the group to achieve both with respect to group action and the quality of group process.

6. The *group-observer* keeps records of various aspects of the group process and reports his findings and interpretations during periods of group evaluation.

Individual roles. In a group situation individuals who are not oriented to the common purposes of the group and who seek as a result to satisfy individual needs and objectives, often at the expense of the group, constitute a distinct deterrent to group thinking and action. When this type of participation is in evidence it may be due to such factors as (1) a low level of skill in group participation among members; (2) the prevalence of authoritarian or laissez-faire points of view toward the group process: (3) a low

and group work, and an analysis of the processes employed, the next move was to experiment with the total results. In preparation for the sponsorship of the next school party, it was decided to plan a preliminary party for the class group during which ideas and suggestions for the school party could be evaluated under realistic conditions.

Upon finding that it could conduct a class party with success, enthusiasm grew for translating the results achieved in one class to the entire school.

The school party conducted by the speech class—"the best dance we ever had" as it was described unanimously by those in attendance—established a pattern that has been employed extensively by other sponsoring groups. The practice of planning school social events more carefully, even to the holding of tryout parties in advance and the acceptance of responsibility by the sponsoring group for helping all those present find activities in which they desire to participate, is coming to be recognized throughout the school as basic to successful social events.

At the conclusion of the project, members of the speech class undertook an evaluation of their group project. The following quotations from students' written evaluations are typical of the responses to the general manner in which learning was carried on:

"The problems discussed in this class are problems that we have to face as we go through high school."

". . . working in committees showed us that it takes skill in order for individuals to work together harmoniously. This skill is very important to the committee, but is sometimes hard to acquire. It takes practice and experience which most of us didn't have."

"It helped me to get acquainted with the other students, some of whom I didn't know too well."

"When a person works with three other people, he must remember that they have ideas too—ideas probably just as good as his, or even better."

"In solving problems, I have found that by making research in libraries and asking questions one finds many new ideas and experiences . . ."

"We all learned what our bad points are and tried to improve them without having our feelings hurt . . . but I know I can't have too much practice. . . . I think this sort of a thing makes the students feel more a part of the class, too."

"The work which we did made it very important to be able to accept other people's ideas and give one's own freely."

"It has helped me to understand the feelings and attitudes of other people."

"I liked our committee work because I think it helped break down an awkward feeling among us students. I think it also brought a closer, more relaxed feeling with the teacher."

which was assigned the responsibility to analyze one of the problems, to gather evidence related to the problem's solution, and to share its findings with other members of the group. It was agreed that each committee would endeavor to find the best possible way of conveying its conclusions to the class with the sole stipulation that the "presentation" must be oral in nature.

These committee investigations took several forms. One of the more satisfactory means of gathering data was through the process of interviewing fellow students. Special attention was given to those who had previously complained about school social events. Material was gathered from the personal experience of members of the class gained by attending successful social functions held at other schools in the community and by observing private parties held by fellow students in which it was considered that "good times" were enjoyed. Books and articles were read for suggestions for types of entertainment, e.g., games, novelties, and decorations. Parents and other adults were consulted for whatever information and ideas they might contribute. School facilities and organizations were examined to determine whether hitherto unused avenues provided opportunities that would aid the class project.

While committee investigations were going forward during class time as well as "extra" time at noon and after school, it was agreed that the group would seek to sponsor the next school party and dance. It was seen that through such an activity the class could make its study more practical by endeavoring to improve school functions.

When groups were ready to share their findings with the class, provisions were made to allow each committee as much time as needed. On the average, one class period was used by each committee for its "presentation," but the ensuing group discussions occupied considerably more time. Criteria agreed upon as the basis for examining the work of each committee emphasized practicality, thoroughness of investigation; helpfulness in terms of conveying ideas and information to others; interest and originality of presentation; and technical speech skills including grammatical usage.

At this particular stage of the study, some of the most satisfying elements of achievement were experienced by members of the group. Committees employed panel discussions, "regular" speeches, dramatic skits (by members of the class), and leader-audience exchanges of ideas. Students discovered that the problems considered by class committees were of value because the information presented could actually be applied to everyday living about the school.

Students also learned to use their own ideas and those of their classmates and friends, as well as those discovered in books, in developing speeches that would be interesting and worthwhile. Intensive interest and effort was in evidence as students co-operatively sought to discover unique and meaningful ways of conveying ideas to others.

Following sharing of committee findings, evaluation of individual

"I learned that each has his own views and that a pooling of these views helps to shed more light on our problems. Our committee work brought out different ways of getting to the bottom of a problem and that each way must be explored for satisfactory results."

In addition to the favorable responses of individual students, members of the group agreed that progress had been made toward the following objectives:

1. Establishment of a friendly atmosphere in which the instructor is an equal part of a permissive situation. Included must be willingness on his part to subject his views, ideas, opinions to the same kind of scrutiny that he regards as desirable for students to employ.
2. Whatever the nature of the course or subject, it can be successfully employed as an integral part of real problems—not merely *related* to pupils' problems. This apparent "dogma" demands pupil participation in determining course content.
3. Social values are inherent in all classroom objectives and need not detract from particular technical achievement—in fact, social values may enhance pupil desire for acquisition of skills, information, and knowledge. Social values, it must be stated, are not to be defined in the sense alone of the social graces that were strong motivation at the outset of the problem project herein described.
4. The nature of objectives (and assumed progress toward them) requires opportunity "to do something about the problems involved." Consequently, pupils must share in the evaluation of achievement and in determining the means of evaluation as well.
5. Creativeness is not solely the province of the virtuoso; a teacher must believe in this tenet, and as a result he will scarcely ever look for complete attainment or for "right" and "wrong"; instead, he will encourage development of initiative, originality, challenge (especially of his own thoughts), self-discipline, and research competence—defining the latter as a "frame of mind" that leads to new beliefs without categorically rejecting old ones.

A Ninth-Grade Student Assists a Classmate.[29]

"Miss Jones, I'm having trouble. My prints from my linoleum block aren't clear, and I've tried everything I know to do, and I still can't work it out."

"Jeanne, I'm sorry, but there are several other people that need help too, and I'll get to you as soon as possible."

"Miss Jones, could I help Jeanne? I've done block printing, and perhaps I've had just the problem that is bothering Jeanne now."

"Of course, Mary. There are many times when students can do just

[29] Reported by Dorothy Vest Hunter, Instructor, Related Arts, The University School, The Ohio State University.

as effective teaching as we teachers can. If you can spare the time from your own work I know Jeanne will appreciate any help that you can give her."

Sometime later Miss Jones found a free moment and went over to Jeanne's work table. "May I help you now, Jeanne?"

"Thank you, Miss Jones, but Mary helped me out—everything's perfect now, and I'm thrilled with the results I'm getting."

Miss Jones was thrilled, too—with the results of continuous work on the problem of social sensitivity and with the spontaneity with which these two girls could work together in the classroom situation.

Evaluation Procedure Used by an Eleventh-Grade Group to Choose Site of Class Trip.

The form below was developed by an eleventh-grade class group at The University School of The Ohio State University as a means of evaluating three possible destinations for a class trip. By determining the degree to which each proposed location for the trip could satisfy the various interests of members of the group, it was possible to arrive at a decision based on valid information related to the purpose and objectives of the trip and the educational needs of members of the group.

ELEVENTH-GRADE TRIP

Class Interests	Possible Sources		
Note: Add to or modify items in this column.	*Chicago*	*Detroit*	*Tennessee Valley*
1. Contacts with people			
a. Foreigners			
b. Other races			
c. Varied economic groups (sharecroppers, miners, factory workers, employees, etc.)			
2. Labor			
a. Organization			
b. Working conditions			
c. Unemployment			
3. Housing			
a. Slums, rural or urban			
b. Re-housing			
c. Range in housing			
4. Settlement or community houses			

appropriate time to begin co-operative work with students. After a few minutes during which new students were introduced to those who had been in school the previous year and to each other, members of the group were asked to write on a slip of paper why they had enrolled for Psychology 51, general psychology. Before these statements were collected individuals were invited to volunteer to read to the class their reasons for electing the course. Approximately twenty-two were able to respond in a ten-minute interval.

Reasons for enrollment varied widely. All members of the group found it interesting to know why others had decided to take the course. Some said they had been advised by former sophomore friends, by counselors, former teachers, parents, and others to take psychology. Two veterans indicated they had heard a lot about this subject during their army days and thought it might be good to study. Some knew that the study of psychology was a requirement for entering junior classes in such fields as optometry, physical education, law, teaching, and radio work. Others who planned to enter certain occupations after leaving junior college reported that they believed this course would help them in business, advertising, art, or playground supervision. Still others said that it is good for everybody to know how to get along with people. A few wanted to understand themselves, and two members of the group admitted that they just wanted an eight o'clock class. A girl wanted to learn all she could before being married the next summer. One boy admitted that he enrolled for the course because it was supposed to be easy and that he had been told that no one ever failed it in this school. Another boy wanted to know how to control his emotions, while one girl stated that she had heard that all sorts of interest and aptitude tests would be administered in connection with the class work. Three boys and one girl gave as their reasons that they understood it was a class in which a lot of discussion could take place. A half-dozen expressed the belief that the study of psychology would help them to know themselves in relation to others and to know how to deal with or manage situations involving other people.

After this brief examination of various reasons for enrollment in the course, the instructor asked, "How can we arrange to meet all these purposes?"

Some members of the group thought it could not be done. They pointed out that all would simply have to endeavor to learn as much as they could from the textbook and outside readings as well as from the instructor's lectures, each student attempting to make adaptations to individual needs. Others seemed willing to be convinced that it might be possible to develop the course in such manner that each individual would be able to work on problems directly related to his purposes for taking the course.

After further discussion it was agreed that the class be divided into three groups according to these main interests:

(1) Those who wished to prepare for living with others—to understand themselves and their classmates, to overcome prejudices, to develop tolerance, and to become willing to accept others as worthy of respect regardless of backgrounds and abilities.

(2) Those who were preparing to enter vocations on leaving junior college—business, playground work, selling, secretarial work.

(3) Those who were planning to continue college work in order to enter such professions as law, teaching, the ministry, business administration, medicine, optometry, and the like.

Because it was recognized that certain common concerns were interrelated to the purposes of all three groups, it was decided that the class would meet as a group once a week to listen to a lecture, see a film, hear a class or committee report, evaluate progress toward objectives, or participate in a group discussion led by the instructor. Time for this general meeting was set for the regular class meeting on Mondays. Section meetings were scheduled separately on Wednesdays and Fridays.

Since the class was divided rather evenly into three subsections, it was agreed that the instructor would spend about the same amount of time with each, meeting either on consecutive days or dividing the class time on particular days into two sections.

Some general purposes of the course were discussed and selected as worthy objectives for the whole class. Further consideration of these common concerns was postponed until the following Monday in order that more time could be given to it. Before the end of the first meeting, however, names for the three subsections were chosen as follows: (1) personal psychology; (2) general psychology for occupational use; and (3) general psychology for professional preparation.

This first class period had passed too quickly. Students left the class enthusiastic and talking about what they would do the following week. The instructor did not hand out the prepared mimeographed bibliography since it was felt that the way the initial planning was developing students would probably learn later much in preparing sectional bibliographies as they felt the need to consult references.

To the junior college teacher, accustomed to traditional teaching procedures, it may seem that little was accomplished during this first fifty-minute class period. One of thirty-three possible meetings had passed while no lecture had been given and no notes had been taken by students. Those who believe in the worth of co-operative group action, however, will recognize that progress was made toward the objectives of democratic teaching. Not all the students had taken part in the discussion, but all had listened, all had voted on issues considered, and all members of the group had been afforded an opportunity to participate in the planning of the manner in which the class could be conducted in order to make the best provision for individual needs and interests.

The following Wednesday the second class meeting was devoted to taking an interest inventory for the purpose of confirming expressed interests. These responses were checked by a committee of students under the guidance of the instructor. Friday was devoted to an appraisal of interests and needs represented within the class as verified by the interest inventory. This was followed on Monday—the beginning of the second week—by a general group discussion for the purposes of (1) clarifying further instructional goals in relation to individual and group needs and (2) selecting a committee to co-ordinate the efforts of the three major subsections of the class. A committee of representatives from each of the subsections was selected to meet with the instructor, to act as a steering committee, to make the wishes of members of subgroups known, and to suggest ways of meeting them within the framework of the total class purposes. Further planning led to the agreement that membership on the steering committee should be rotated every four weeks. Provision was made for a member representing each subcommittee to carry over to work with new members of the steering committee in order that continuity would be maintained.

Because the instructor could not be present at all committee meetings, the class decided to take the responsibility of checking attendance, distributing mimeographed material, arranging for conferences, and attending to other routines.

As the need arose during the quarter, committees were created to check papers; help select tests; to devise report forms, select films, interview and invite speakers on particular Mondays; and to arrange for social experiences. Other temporary committees were asked to help adapt materials of the course to the needs of each of the three subgroups, to report achievement of one section to the entire class at a general meeting, and to evaluate the group growth toward accepted purposes. One such committee was asked by the group to make recommendations for the following quarter's work. All committee representatives were selected—not appointed—by members of each of the three class committees.

A final evaluation of the course found everyone in agreement that the subject matter developed and considered during the quarter represented more than would have been covered through the procedure of the traditional lecture or recitation followed by a formal examination. It was recognized, also, that all members of the group, including the instructor, had worked harder than would have been the case in a lecture course. Attitudes built up, competencies achieved, emotional satisfactions that resulted, the demonstrated ability of most members of the group to think and to work without direction from the instructor, improvement in ability to communicate and work co-operatively—all gave proof of the effectiveness of this attempt to work and live together democratically.

Utilizing a Co-operative Approach to Problem-Solving in a High School Physics Class.[30]

In order that students may learn to plan the methods of obtaining and evaluating the information necessary to the solution of a problem, stress had been placed in the course in physics upon developing our own problems instead of starting with the statement of those found in the typical laboratory manual. The following anecdote illustrates how this procedure was employed in identifying the principles of action of a pendulum.

A group of students decided to determine the factors that control the period of vibration of a pendulum and to show how each factor is related to the period of swing before reading the available reference material. A committee discussion of the possible factors that would affect the time necessary for a pendulum to vibrate back and forth led to an enumeration of the following suggested conditions:

1. Length of the pendulum.
2. Size and density of the weight hung at its end.
3. Arc through which the pendulum vibrates.
4. Types of support for the pendulum weight (rigid or non-rigid).

To test these various suggestions the committee arranged to time the swinging of a pendulum while varying one factor at a time in order to discover the relative effect each change of condition had upon the time of a single vibration of the pendulum. The following table was developed as a means of recording the data:

	Length of Period	Amplitude	Size of Weight	Type of Pendulum Arm: Rigid Steel Bar	Type of Pendulum Arm: String
Time of Vibration					

Upon initial experimentation it was discovered that even with several trials it was difficult to time accurately one vibration of the pendulum. To solve this problem a member of the group suggested that a large number of vibrations be timed as a means of fixing more accurately the time for a single vibration.

Data collected and recorded in this manner were then examined by members of the committee for accuracy. In general, the results were found to check rather closely. After this firsthand learning experience had been completed, the formula given by the physics text-

[30] Reported by Harold E. Reynard, Assistant Professor, The University School, The Ohio State University.

tant function, that of promoting and developing good attitudes, school spirit, and sportsmanship.

Participants in the sports program plan, develop, and evaluate their experiences in a manner that is consistent with methods used in other areas in the school. For example, during one of the early fall meetings, students on the football team were asked, "What do you expect to get out of your football experience this year?"

One quickly replied, "To prove we can take it as well as give it." Another stated, "The joy of winning." These and many other responses were discussed and grouped in clusters. Out of this evolved the following objectives:

1. To develop strong muscles; to lose weight in some cases and gain weight in others.
2. To put every effort into winning and yet be aware of other things which might be more important. For instance, an impending cold might keep a player out of a game or loss of his temper or an unsportsmanlike act might remove a player from the game.
3. To improve in speed, co-ordination, and skill.
4. To respect the abilities and skill of opponents.
5. To contribute to team success in terms of attitude, effort, and co-operation.
6. To be with friends and have fun as a result of working together for common purposes.
7. To control one's self in victory and in defeat.
8. To learn more about the game, different offenses and defenses and game strategy.
9. To understand one's own strengths and weaknesses and recognize the limitations of the body.
10. To develop game skills, so that one feels self-confident and able to perform well, and thereby gain recognition and respect from others.
11. To put sportsmanship into practice.
12. To develop a greater concern for healthful living.

After the objectives had been agreed upon, it was felt that some criteria were needed to assist in achieving the objectives. An immediate response to this suggestion by one boy was, "We need training rules." Great interest was shown in a conditioning program, but a few students expressed the opinion that rules alone would not assure physical condition. At this point the coach suggested reference material that would provide information dealing with diet, rest, fatigue, relaxation, sanitation, diseases, drugs, etc., and which would help in the selection of standards the group wished to maintain. When these standards were agreed upon it was felt that each student had a personal as well as a group responsibility to maintain them.

In addition to conditioning, the group listed other specific things which it felt would contribute toward the attainment of the over-all objectives. Some of these were:

1. Provide participation for all by having reserve games.
2. Promptness and regular attendance to practice.
3. Keep a chart showing weight gained or lost each week.
4. Co-operative rather than a competitive attitude regarding team positions.
5. Define sportsmanship.
6. See that equipment is kept sanitary.
7. Daily concern for appearance, grooming.
8. Attention to care of injuries, minor cuts, constant check on athlete's foot.
9. Report illness and injuries to coach and school doctor.
10. See that parents are kept informed of personal and group interests.
11. See that a favorable balance is maintained between time spent in football and in other areas of interests.

Progress that was being made in the light of these objectives was checked co-operatively by the boys and their coach throughout the season.

Field practice sessions were planned in advance and talked over with the team. However, these were not conceived in terms of a rigid schedule that permitted only certain experiences to be developed. If it seemed that other experiences were more important in a given situation a boy could deviate from the original plan to meet his immediate need. Offensive plays were learned by looking at the total experience first and then breaking it down into component parts so that each individual could see the relatedness of the various individual skills needed in the total situation. Offensive and defensive game strategy for certain situations were developed similarly.

At the end of the season a written evaluation was made by the boys of this football experience in terms of the previously accepted major objectives. The form below was used for this purpose.

Below are listed the objectives agreed upon at the beginning of the season. Indicate frankly the degree to which you feel you have approached these objectives by putting a cross (x) in the proper column. On the back of the sheet write any additional positive or negative statements you desire about your football experience this fall.

	Highest	High	Middle	Low	Lowest
(1) To develop strong muscles, endurance, and a good physique.					
(2)					

By tabulating the statistical results of such a self-evaluation the group and coach can gain an estimate of the degree to which the objectives have been achieved.

A ballot is used to determine the boys that are to receive the letter award. The students are supposed to participate in one-half of the total number of quarters which the team plays. This standard is a guide rather than a rigid requirement and may be waived by a vote of the team. For instance, a student who has been unable to participate because of an injury or another unavoidable condition may have this standard waived. Each member of the team and each coach has one vote. A letter is awarded each player who receives an affirmative vote on each of the items listed on the ballot from two-thirds of those voting.

Name	Years on squad	Quarters played	Quarters required	Should playing time be waived in this case?		Sportsmanship, behavior, attitude, such that reflect creditably upon himself, team, and school.	Contribution toward team success in terms of cooperation, team spirit, social and citizenship values.	Industry, performance, putting forth his best efforts.

These written evaluations are considered an important part of the student's experience in interschool sports and help to further focus his attention on the educational values that can be derived from athletic participation.

Members of a Core Group Plan Next Steps in Their Study of Atomic Energy.[33]

	RECORDED GROUP DISCUSSION	DEVELOPMENTAL PROCESS
INSTRUCTOR:	During the first part of our unit on atomic energy, we worked together, had common assignments, and discussions in which the whole class participated. Now in the second part, as we planned, we will do individual and small committee work.	*Instructor reviews procedures followed*

[33] This example of teacher-student sharing was taken from a transcription of a group planning session carried out under the leadership of Hugh Laughlin, Instructor in Core, The University School, The Ohio State University.

In making this transition several questions need our attention:

What are the divisions of the unit that you think we should set up?

Another question is, How should we plan? Should we first set up categories or divisions, or organizations, or should we think about the different parts and then decide what different people can do?

by group and projects questions that need to be answered in carrying out previously laid plan of action.

HENRY: Well, I think unless somebody has an idea about something other than what we studied in the first part, we should just take the first part of the unit and study it individually.

INSTRUCTOR: Who wants to review the four different parts of the unit?

MELL: Physical science, negative and positive uses, let's see, domestic use—and international control.

Calls for review of major phases of study. Suggests that an effort be made to subdivide topics further. A student suggests a plan for carrying out next phase of unit.

INSTRUCTOR: Now do you think of topics that could become 5, 6 or 7?

BRANDON: I think the ones we had on the board yesterday, that we divided into subtopics could be used. If we get a committee to take each of the large topics and then if smaller committees work on the subtopics . . .

INSTRUCTOR: That would be a more detailed organization of these four parts and you would suggest that the responsibility be assigned to a committee? Or to the class as a whole?

BRANDON: Well, the committee that chose one of the main topics could decide, themselves, which sub-topics they would choose.

(Further discussion by various members of the group seemed to move the thinking of the class to the point where the instructor felt free to move ahead with the planning for small committee work.)

INSTRUCTOR: Now let's find out first about the physical science topic. Who would like to go into that more specifically? Who would like to make a greater study of the structure of matter, the nature of matter, the structure of the atomic bomb? . . . (*as students volunteer*) Tom, Mary Lou. We could probably get some help from Mr. Reynard on this problem or from one of the other science teachers. Any others? Only two. We will move ahead; maybe others will join these two.

Members of the group are asked to volunteer for committee membership in terms of their interest. Physical science committee attracts only two members; committee on negative uses is selected by three as is the committee for the study of positive uses of atomic energy.

INSTRUCTOR: Then for the study of the atomic bomb or the negative use—how many are interested in that? Hugh, Brandon, George . . . others?

All right, the positive use—that is in medicine, radio isotopes, and atomic energy for power, etc. How many would be interested in that phase? John? Mickey? Jack? Any others?

Domestic and international control of atomic energy? Lets see the names there. Lucy, Nancy, Jean, Henry, Cissy, Bob, Wilbur. Did I miss anyone?

Initial selection of committees leaves size of work groups unbalanced. Instructor encourages students to appraise problem confronting committees with only two or three members.

Now we have domestic and international control —eight; positive uses—three; negative uses of the atomic bomb—three; the physical science side—two.

How do you think that stacks up?

All right, Chuck, you are joining the positive uses committee. Mell, positive uses, also—that makes six now studying positive uses.

Eight on the committee for control; three on the committee concerned with the atomic bomb; two on the physical science committee.

Tom, what do you and Mary Lou think about going ahead as a group of two? Do you want to do it?

Asks students to indicate how they feel. Students point out that the committee could serve the group needs better if it had more members.

TOM: We could probably use more. We would be able to cover more materials with more members.

INSTRUCTOR: The idea will be to bring back to the class some kind of a report—some kind of resources. That does put quite a burden on these two people doesn't it?

Two students volunteer to change committees in order to help out.

BOB: I'll move over there.

INSTRUCTOR: Anyone else? Cissy, you'll volunteer to move over to the physical science aspect. That makes four.

(After committees are

balanced instructor initiates consideration of committee responsibilities.)

INSTRUCTOR: What shall be your responsibility? Should you come back to the group with facts and opinions; opinions or conclusions that come from the facts as you see them; or is it your responsibility just to look at the facts and let it go at that? Or should you come back with opinions only and assume that in the report you can't cover too many facts or can't share with the group too much of the data you have been able to gather?

Reconsideration of responsibility of committees in terms of what is to be brought back to class group.

BRANDON: I think all the committees ought to have a meeting together to see what they are going to do.

INSTRUCTOR: Shouldn't all the committees more or less go about it in the same way from the standpoint of getting a report back to this group?

What kind of things can the committee bring back to the group that will help you?

JACK: Well, Mr. Laughlin, I don't see why we are even doing this—because we have discussed this for almost a quarter now these four things. I don't see why we are going to split up into separate groups to study the same thing over again.

One student raises an objection to the entire procedure under consideration and questions value of more intensive study of same problem that has been surveyed by the entire group.

INSTRUCTOR: You raise a critical question, Jack. We should con-

Negative reaction is accorded respect and consideration by instructor.

sider it . . . What do you think Cissy?

CISSY: I thought the reason we were getting these . . . studying these units more thoroughly . . . was to get more facts. I thought . . . before . . . we were just getting our opinions.

TOM: Well most of these things we really haven't gone into, especially the unit on physical science. We really haven't skimmed the surface.

Members of the group argue that original plans should be followed. Mell joins Jack in proposing that the group move on to the study of new topics.

INSTRUCTOR: Maybe for some people we have skimmed the surface.

MELL: I thought that when we first started this study and split up into groups, we would finish studying these topics and would start four new things . . .

INSTRUCTOR: Well there seems to be some little difference of opinion, and we haven't gotten far enough into our planning that we couldn't back out. Maybe we could go ahead as Mell suggests —with four new topics.

Instructor notes conflict. Asks group to consider alternate suggestion proposed by Mell.

Response to Mell's suggestion?

JOAN: What I want to know is when we give our reports will it be before the group as a committee or will they be given as individual reports?

Members of group tend to ignore resistance of Jack and Mell and endeavor to move ahead with previous planning relative to committee responsibilities.

INSTRUCTOR: I assume that we would have to decide that. I do not know. Maybe we would leave it in the hands of each committee as to how it would make its report.

JOAN: I think each individual should turn in his individual report—written—after the committee report has been made to the group.

INSTRUCTOR: Why don't we say that the committees working with the teacher will decide how to do that. Right now, the question is, Should we have committees? Two: if we do have committees, should they be committees to cover the same topics we studied as a group, or should they be committees concerned with new topics?

Instructor initiates serious consideration of counter-proposal supported by Jack and Mell. Group is not permitted to ignore a minority opinion contrary to majority sentiment.

Now let us respond to the question Jack raises and the comment Mell makes for a few minutes to be sure we know where we are going and that we are agreed.

MARTA: I would like to ask Mell if she knows of anything else we ought to study.

MELL: It seemed to me that we had broken it down into as many parts as we could.

INSTRUCTOR: Mell, would your idea be taken care of if we followed Brandon's idea of detailing these divisions more?

Evidence of direct consideration for Mell's suggestion and desire to understand. When asked to expand her suggestion, Mell, like other members of the group, can think of no other topics. Mell is helped to see that Brandon's idea takes care of the thought she has been supporting. Emphasis upon point that further study of topics will be on new material, rather than a "rehash" process helps.

MELL: Yes.

INSTRUCTOR: And then have maybe a committee with individual assignments? Is that your idea Brandon? Maybe that would get us into new materials and new ideas rather than causing us just to rehash the old topics.

MELL: It seems to me that's what we would be doing.

INSTRUCTOR: Jack you raised this propositional question about the organization. Is there anything more you would like to say about it?

Jack is asked to expand his objection to group plans.

JACK: I thought we would be all done with this subject. I thought the planning session would be on our new topic, but it seems to me it is wasted time to go over the same thing we have studied again.

(Having been made to face Jack's objection to further study of the same topics, members of the group advanced arguments for a more intensive study of the four aspects of atomic energy. Henry and Joan's comments were typical.)

HENRY: But you wouldn't be going over the same thing—I mean like in studying the physical science part of the bomb. We didn't get into that in any detail. We just skimmed over that. We didn't learn anything very thoroughly, and the more you know about it, the more you know there is to know. There is no limit to what you can learn about those things, and we haven't learned very much as yet.

Students argue that material that has been subject to an exploratory survey by entire group still is suitable for more intensive individual and committee study. Emphasis placed upon importance of accepting responsibility for individual written work.

JOAN: I don't think the unit would be complete unless each person was responsible for some kind of written work.

At conclusion of in-

INSTRUCTOR:	Let's see how many people think we should go ahead on the individual work in terms of the four divisions that we have been talking about? How many would agree to that? (*Students show agreements by raising hands.*) Jack is the first one to agree, and I see that all the rest now favor our working on that basis.	*terchange of ideas relative to group plans, instructor seeks to find common agreement. Student who previously objected to group plans is first to indicate willingness to continue with project as it had been previously outlined.*

Summary

Evidence from both action and experimental research supports the value of teacher-student sharing as a method of teaching in the secondary school. Democratic approaches to teaching have been found superior to traditional procedures when attitudes, understandings, and social competencies necessary to effective citizenship have been the objectives sought. Co-operative planning and learning procedures have also been found superior when the mastery of subject matter was the outcome desired.

Teachers who have experimented with teacher-student sharing find that it contributes to such objectives as (1) development of initiative, originality, and creativeness; (2) furtherance of independence and responsibility; (3) dependence upon intrinsic motivation based on student interests and recognized needs; (4) cultivation of habits and skills of co-operation and the acceptance of social responsibility; (5) achievement of a scientific approach to solving problems; and (6) stimulating social sensitivity. Students who have been privileged to participate in teacher-student sharing as an approach to school learning attest to their preference for this method of teaching.

Anecdotal descriptions of teacher-student sharing in operation illustrate the adaptability of this method to all subject fields and to different levels of the secondary school. They illustrate, also, ways in which this approach to teaching may be employed in a variety of situations. Forms of recording data during learning experiences that have been developed co-operatively by students and teachers suggest guides that may be used effectively in encouraging co-operative purposing, planning, executing, and evaluating.

Related Experiences

1. If available, arrange for showing to your teacher-education group of the following film:

Wilson Dam School (25 minutes: sound). Distributed by DeLuxe Laboratories, Inc., 850 10th Avenue, New York, N. Y., and the Tennessee Valley Authority, Knoxville, Tennessee. Illustrates democratic planning by teachers and students and the use of the community as a laboratory for learning.

2. Compare with members of your group the qualities possessed by those high school teachers you liked best.

3. Visit teachers who are using the method of teacher-student sharing in nearby secondary schools. Record anecdotal descriptions of examples of this method of teaching. Compare the incidents you prepare with those described by other members of your group.

4. Arrange to record a group discussion carried on by members of your own class of prospective teachers. Then play back the transcription to the class group for the purpose of analyzing (1) the manner in which members of the group shared in the discussion; (2) the concern for vital problems evidenced by the group; (3) willingness and ability of individuals to discuss co-operatively a common problem; and (4) the role of the group leader during the discussion.

5. Try to find in periodical literature other examples and research evidence that support the validity of teacher-student sharing as a method of teaching in the secondary school.

6. Develop in co-operation with your classmates forms that can be used by class committees to record data collected and to summarize group learning experiences.

Suggested Readings

ALBERTY, HAROLD, *Reorganizing the High-School Curriculum*. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1947, pp. 337–375.

ANDERSON, HAROLD H.; BREWER, JOSEPH E.; AND REED, MARY F., *Studies of Teachers' Classroom Personalities*, III, American Psychological Association. Stanford, California: Stanford University Press, 1946, 156 pp.

BARKER, ROGER G.; KOUNIN, JACOB S.; AND WRIGHT, HERBERT F., *Child Behavior and Development*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1943, 652 pp.

BAXTER, BERNICE, AND CASSIDY, ROSALINE, *Group Experience*. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1943, 218 pp.

BLOUGH, GLENN O., "Teaching More Than Science," *NEA Journal*, 37:514–15, November, 1948.

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groups to dominate the larger unit; (6) interpersonal and intra-group competition; and (7) inability to translate group decisions and agreements into appropriate action.

Our general ineffectiveness in group work often leads us to the conclusion that co-operative action is impossible. We may even generalize to the point of assuming that it is "human nature" to behave as we do in group situations. From such suppositions it is an easy step to agree that effective group action is improbable without someone to "be the boss," to tell others what to do, and to see that things get done, all of which invariably results in our proclaiming theories of democratic action while being unable to translate our ideals into practice. It is with such discrepancies between theory and practice, between principles and methods, between talk and action, and between group disintegration and wholesome maturation that the study of group development is concerned.

Studies of the dynamics that underlie group action have supported the following assumptions:[1]

1. It is possible for groups to grow in their ability to work together.
2. Appropriate techniques can be developed for managing emotional problems that arise within a group.
3. There are ways of increasing the efficiency of a group by bringing out and using potential member contributions.
4. Groups can improve in the ability to absorb the shock that results from the loss of a member, inclusion of new individuals, conflict over leadership, and incompetent or group-dominating leadership.
5. Through self-study and evaluation groups can increase their objectivity in dealing with group problems.
6. Individuals respond favorably to the task of seeking continuous improvement in group efficiency.

Relationship of such findings to teaching method is readily apparent when we are concerned with helping groups of students develop proficiency in translating ideals of democratic living into habits of behavior.

The Concept of Group Dynamics

Definition. Group dynamics may be defined as the force or power that underlies group productivity. Study of group dynamics

[1] Leland P. Bradford, Kenneth D. Benne, and Ronald Lippitt, "The Promise of Group Dynamics for Education," *NEA Journal*, 37:350–51, Sept., 1948.

leads to understanding cause and effect of forces operating in a group and to helping the group become sensitive to its problems and competent to solve them.[2] Research in this area seeks to[3] (1) help members of groups increase their understanding of the many complex forces operating in group situations that tend to accelerate or retard group action; (2) develop instruments and skills that facilitate diagnosis of group ills; (3) clarify the numerous facets of group leadership and membership necessary to successful action; (4) devise techniques of training individuals for effective group membership and leadership; (5) assist members of a group to bring about improvement in the group situation; and (6) improve techniques and procedures for evaluating individual skill in group relationships.

Procedures for studying group development. Studies of the group process have been conducted through the procedures of trained observation and analysis of the type of organization, steps followed, contributions of members, effect of operating factors, and quality of leadership. Through this approach in studying a group, answers are sought to such questions as the following:

1. What methods for reaching successful results were used by the group?
2. What effect did the leader's behavior have on the group?
3. What kinds of behavior were operating in the group?
4. What were the forces assisting or preventing the group from solving its problems?
5. What can be done to help the group improve its ability to reach sound decisions?
6. What prevents the group from translating into action decisions agreed upon?

Research in group dynamics. Pioneer research in the area of group dynamics in the United States was conducted at the University of Iowa under the direction of the late Kurt Lewin, a social psychologist who is coming to be regarded as the "father" of the group dynamics movement.[4] Later, under the leadership of

[2] *Ibid.*

[3] *Loc. cit.*

[4] These studies are generally referred to as the Iowa Social Climate Experiments. They were concerned with the effect of three different types of leadership, democratic, authoritarian and laissez faire, upon teen-age boys' club groups. See:

Kurt Lewin, Ronald Lippitt, and Ralph K. White, "Patterns of Aggressive Behavior in Experimentally Created 'Social Climates,'" *Journal of Social Psychology*, 10:271–279, May, 1939.

Ronald Lippitt, "An Experimental Study of the Effect of Democratic and Au-

Lewin, the Massachusetts Institute of Technology Research Center for Group Dynamics expanded experimentation in this field to industrial, governmental, business, community and other types of group activity.[5] These efforts at research into the problems of human relationships were encouraged and aided by the Adult Education Division of the National Education Association, which in 1946 joined with the Research Center for Group Dynamics in assisting the Connecticut State Interracial Commission and the State Department of Education in conducting a training center for community leaders who were engaged in attempting to improve intergroup relations.[6]

1. National Training Laboratory in Group Development. Growing out of the Connecticut experiment, the First National Training Laboratory in Group Development was held in 1947 under the joint sponsorship of the Research Center for Group Dynamics, and the National Education Association, with the following co-operating sponsors: the University of California, the University of Michigan, the University of Maine, Cornell University, Springfield College, and the Teachers College of Columbia University.[7] Assistance was received also from the Carnegie Corporation. To this laboratory and the second one that followed in the summer of 1948 [8] came representatives from various fields of activity—government, labor, community work, industry, adult education, social work, military service, higher and secondary education and other fields—to work with a staff of skilled group leaders and trained social research workers in an experimental effort to discover techniques and procedures for improving human relations, increasing group maturity, inducing social change and relating social theory and research to practice.

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thoritarian Group Atmospheres," *Studies in Topological and Vector Psychology*, University of Iowa Studies in Child Welfare, 16:45–195, 1940.
Ronald Lippitt and Ralph White, "The 'Social Climate' of Children's Groups," (R. Barker, J. Kounin, and H. Wright, editors) *Child Behavior and Development.* New York: McGraw-Hill, 1943, pp. 485–508.

[5] See *The Journal of Social Issues*, Vol. 1, August, 1945. (Entire issue.)

[6] Ronald Lippitt, *Training in Community Relations: A Research Exploration Toward New Group Skills.* New York: Harper and Brothers, 1946.

[7] National Training Laboratory in Group Development, *Preliminary Report of the First National Training Laboratory in Group Development.* Bethel, Maine: June 16 to July 4, 1947.

[8] National Training Laboratory in Group Development, *Report of the Second Summer Laboratory Session*, Bethel, Maine: June 13 to July 3, 1948. Sponsored by the National Education Association and the Research Center for Group Dynamics, which was transferred from the Massachusetts Institute of Technology to the University of Michigan in 1948. Co-operating institutions included, in addition to those mentioned, with the exception of the University of Maine, The Ohio State University, the University of Chicago, and the University of North Carolina.

2. *Other laboratory experiments.* In addition to the major research projects mentioned above, the Research Center for Group Dynamics, in co-operation with the Adult Education Division of the National Education Association and other organizations, has helped sponsor research in group dynamics involving training, observation and analysis of leader and group activities of two national meetings of the Association of Supervision and Curriculum Development of the National Education Association.[9] The first of two such meetings was held in Chicago in 1947; the second took place in Cincinnati, Ohio, in 1948. A similar study[10] was conducted during the national meeting of Adult Education Division of the National Education Association, October 26–29, 1948, at Purdue University. A number of studies have been conducted with industrial and community organizations,[11] in intercultural relations,[12] with Boy Scout groups,[13] and with other types of organization.

3. *Action research in community dynamics.* Increasingly, research in group dynamics is being conducted by individuals and institutions other than those connected directly with the Research Center for Group Dynamics and the National Training Laboratory in Group Development. An example of the growing interest and expansion of research in this field is being conducted under the sponsorship of Earlham College in Richmond, Indiana.[14] Beginning in 1947, this program of community study has aimed to help students develop into socially aware citizens who have acquired skill in solving the problems of the communities in which they live. Contrasted to the experiments conducted by the National Training Laboratory in Group Development in which people from many localities were brought together in an artificial laboratory situation, the Earlham studies are conducted in real communities and are related to existing problems as illustrated by the following:[15]

[9] Association of Supervision and Curriculum Development, *Report of the Second Annual Meeting.* Chicago: The Association, March 23–26, 1947.

[10] Kenneth D. Benne and Leland P. Bradford, "The Annual Conference of the Department of Adult Education," *Adult Education Bulletin,* 13:228–234, Dec. 1948.

[11] J. R. P. French Jr., "A Method of Training Foremen," *Human Factors in Management,* Park College Press (Schuler Dean Hoslet, editor), 1946.

L. Bradford, "Building Employee Security," *Personnel.* New York: American Management Association, Jan. 1946.

[12] Fred T. Smith, *An Experiment in Modifying Attitudes Toward the Negro.* New York: Contributions to Education, No. 887, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1943.

[13] "Scout Troups in Action," *Scouting for Facts,* Boy Scouts of America.

[14] William V. Biddle, *Community Studies and Dynamics* (First Annual Report). Richmond, Indiana: Earlham College, Oct. 1948, 20 pp.

[15] *Ibid.,* p. 15.

vival, and it is a compelling need in living tissue, organisms and to some extent, also, in inanimate matter. When we deal with groups, we deal with the very essence of life and the persistent oversight of group attitudes and group pressures in education and therapy has retarded our understanding of man and his motives.

Contrary to popular assumption the group was not devised by man for his convenience and purposes. All types of life utilize various forms of group techniques either as a source of protection or as a method of existence. Studies of animal and insect life have revealed the existence of group structure,[20] while anthropologists, sociologists, and biologists now agree that mutual aid is the key factor in survival and evolution.[21] We are now coming to realize that survival of the fittest is a concept that is more appropriately applied to groups than to individuals. The individual—human or otherwise—is able to survive only when his existence is furthered and maintained through membership in a "fit" group.

Personality of groups. Distinction is made between a collection of individuals and a group. Students of group life now place emphasis upon such qualities as (1) cohesiveness of the group; (2) influence of the group upon its members; (3) qualities of acceptance or resistance to new ideas, new members, or to other groups; and (4) the stability of the group. When considered compositely these qualities are often referred to as the personality of the group. As the analogy implies, groups, like individuals, develop distinct personalities that characterize the activities of members both in and out of the physical group situation.

Qualities that comprise group personality may include:

1. Group prejudices. Groups may display intolerance to other individuals or groups on the grounds of race, social status, religion, nationality, family background, educational background, political beliefs, and the like. Individual members commonly adhere to the prejudice of the group even when not in the presence of other group members.

2. Structure. Each group will be identifiable by the nature of its inner organization—formal and operational. Structure may involve the commonness of purpose, the nature of leadership, the status of individual members and of subgroups, and the general way in which the group functions.

3. Resistance to change. The degree to which a group resists new ideas and ways of action represents a characteristic peculiar

[20] J. P. Scott, "Group Formation Determined by Social Behavior: A Comparative Study of Two Mammalian Societies," *Sociometry*, 8:42–52, May, 1945.
[21] S. R. Slavson, *op. cit.*, p. 25.

to particular kinds of group personality. Some groups exist for the purpose of resisting change as is the case of community group organized to "keep taxes down." Some groups resist change initiated by individuals or other groups. A student group, for example, may resist change suggested by a teacher or the PTA.

4. Internal freedom. The degree of internal freedom of interaction is an aspect of group personality. This quality is quickly destroyed by suspicion, aloofness, jealousy, competitiveness, exclusiveness, and other attitudes that tend to prevent development of a high fraternal spirit among members. In groups where the amount of permissiveness and acceptance of the contributions of others is low, the members may remain in the group, but may exhibit various symptoms of resentment for their associations with other members. The converse is a group in which individuals feel friendly and kindly toward each other, in which members feel free in their group life.

5. Aggressiveness toward other groups. A group may exist for the purpose of combating other groups. Its personality may be characterized, as is the case with many adolescent gangs, by attitudes of hatred and resentment toward other similar groups or toward groups that differ. This becomes a strong force in holding a group together.

6. Group values. Personality of a group is determined in part by the values endorsed or cherished by the group. These may range from religious principles and ideals of humanity and service to lawlessness and immorality.

7. Activities endorsed. The recreation, work, or social activities endorsed or approved by a group represent another aspect of group personality.

The composite personality of a group is important because of its influence on members, not only when associated with the group, but also in other situations. Individual personalities and adjustment are significantly affected, if not determined, by group membership.

Characteristics of groups. One has membership in a group when he begins to feel affected by mores, attitudes, actions, and relationships that characterize the group personality. Frequently we become members of particular groups as a result of circumstantial developments. We are born into membership into family groups; our place of residence determines our relationship with community and particular religious and educational groups. Even though we are forced to associate with certain groupings, however,

we may not in reality accept membership. Likewise, many individuals may live and work together without actually becoming a group.

The characteristics that differentiate a democratic group from a collection of individuals might include: [22]

1. A shared feeling of group morale among members.
2. An atmosphere of permissiveness—individuals feel free to make suggestions and to take exception for the purpose of further inquiry into a policy or procedure.
3. A sense of group direction that members share—group or common purposes.
4. Shared and distributed participation of members.
5. Leadership by members of the group as well as designated leaders.
6. The establishment and maintenance of consensus.

In studying ways of bringing about change in group action designed to discover ways of furthering the maturity of groups, the National Training Laboratory in Group Development placed emphasis upon the following factors in group growth:[23]

1. Intercommunication between members of group:
   a. Mechanics of communication—vocabulary, rules of procedure, semantic sensitivity.
   b. Permissiveness for all members in expressing fears, needs, concerns, ideas, to the group.
2. Group objectivity toward its own functioning:
   a. Ability by all members to make and accept interpretations about member and group functioning.
   b. Ability to collect and use appropriate information about its own group process.
3. Interdependent responsibility of all members for:
   a. Sharing leadership functions—setting direction, being a resource for the group.
   b. Achieving skill in flexible adjustment to member and leader when required by the group at various stages of group production.
   c. Achieving mutual sensitivity to the needs and styles of participation of all members.
   d. Distinguishing between member-role contributions and personality characteristics.

[22] Adapted from Max Goodson, *A Conception of Education for Social Integration*, Urbana, Illinois: University of Illinois (doctoral dissertation), 1949, 273 pp.

[23] National Training Laboratory in Group Development, *Report of the Second Summer Laboratory Session*. Bethel, Maine: NEA and Research Center for Group Dynamics, University of Michigan, 1948, p. 133.

4. Group cohesion adequate to permit:
   a. Assimilation of new ideas without group disintegration.
   b. Assimilation of new members in a way to strengthen rather than to disrupt the group.
   c. Holding to long-range goals where the situation requires.
   d. Profiting from success experiences.
   e. Learning from failure experiences and setting of realistic goals.
   f. Making constructive use of internal conflicts.
5. Group ability to inform itself and to think and decide creatively about its problems:
   a. Utilizing contribution potential of all members.
   b. Discovering and utilizing appropriate resource material and persons.
   c. Detecting and correcting fallacies in group thinking.
6. Group ability to detect and control rhythms of group metabolism: Fatigue, tension, tempo, pace, emotional atmosphere, and the like.
7. Skill in recognizing and achieving control of significant sociometric factors in its own group structure.
8. Satisfactory integrations of member ideologies, needs, and goals with common group traditions, ideology and goals.
9. Group ability to create new functions and groups as needed and to terminate its existence if and as appropriate.

Group Discussion—Essential in Democracy

The democratic group depends for its existence on the ability of its members to communicate ideas to each other. Likewise, a similar society must attach paramount importance to the quality of intercommunication between subgroups. Although the press, the radio, and the motion picture represent valuable tools and avenues of communication, perhaps the most important of all media is that of group discussion. Through discussion, group thinking takes place and group action is given impetus.

Study of group dynamics has placed new and increased emphasis on the process of group discussion. In stressing the dynamic quality of discussion Bradford points out:[24]

> Too frequently the analysis of group discussion has been approached only from the standpoint of what the leader did to maintain control of the group, or what the rules of order were that insured some direction and discipline. Too little attention has been paid to the responsibilities demanded of group members.

[24] Leland P. Bradford, "Introduction—The Dynamics of the Discussion Group," *The Journal of Social Issues*, 4:4, Spring, 1948.

Recent study of group discussion has given consideration to the quality of interaction between members of a group, to what members do that promote or inhibit group action, and to the relationship between group members and the leader. Effort has been made to characterize the quality of group discussion that is appropriate to life in a democratic group and to techniques of helping group members learn how to analyze and correct their own weaknesses in group discussion and activity.

Distinction is made between "talk among people" and group thinking related to common problems and carried on for the purpose of establishing appropriate courses of group action. Recognition is also taken of the fact that in a democratic group, leadership may change hands repeatedly during a group discussion.

Factors to be kept in mind in connection with group discussion include the following:[25]

1. There must be the acceptance of a problem by related individuals who also accept the obligation to participate in the solving of the problem.
2. There must be utilization of special individual competencies and purposes in order (a) to provide full and free participation by all and (b) to extend the range of reflective effort.
3. There must be continuing awareness of the need to redefine the problem and to re-examine conclusions as additional data or new conditions make this imperative.
4. There must be recognition that all ideas should be dealt with in their appropriate status as hypotheses.
5. There must be recognition that this process may be used by all individuals in all areas of living.
6. There must be recognition on the part of the members of the group that they must live by the decisions that have been reached until such time as these decisions may be changed. This also involves the recognition that individuals in a democracy have the right to change decisions as new conditions arise and as new facts are uncovered.
7. There must be a facilitation of group thinking:
   a. By the establishment and maintenance of rapport among group members and with the leader.
   b. By recognizing and resolving conflicts that inhibit the process. Instances of conflict are:
      (1) The intrusion of prejudice into individual or group thought.
      (2) Opposed personalities.

[25] H. Gordon Hullfish and others, *The Problem of Promoting Group Thinking in a Democratic Culture*. Columbus, Ohio: The Ohio State University. Mimeographed report of seminar group, Summer Quarter, 1947, 4 pp. See also Chapter 4.

(3) Differences concerning the solution of a problem irrelevant to the one under discussion.

c. By the realization that all individuals do not participate at the same level all of the time and that individual participation may be either overt or incipient.

d. By providing a feeling of security in the case of normal disagreement, such as those that appear because of:
   (1) Greater depth of insight.
   (2) Assumptions made by certain individuals of the group but not clarified for all members.

e. By fostering clarification of the nature of the problem in light of additional data or by fostering clarification of the meaning of any statement or suggestion offered by an individual in the course of the process. This clarification may be accomplished by:
   (1) Defining words in terms of their common meanings or in terms of the meaning which is specific in a given situation.
   (2) Calling for illustration.
   (3) Drawing out for examination the underlying assumptions of any proposition or assumptions which tend to inhibit or slant the thought of the group.
   (4) Summarization at appropriate points in the process.

f. By recognizing that it is important that the leader may properly seek to facilitate the reflective activity of the group.

g. By recognizing that the leader may properly make contributions which serve as a foil for the group:
   (1) By sustaining an air of ignorance.
   (2) By taking a strong affirmative stand.
   (3) By taking a strong negative stand.

Discussion has been one of the major areas of concern in studies related to group dynamics. At present we have developed sufficient tools for helping groups study their discussion patterns. By using such principles and techniques it is possible to improve the quality of group discussion in communities. Since skill in group discussion—from the point of view of both the member and leader of a group—is essential for democratic living, it follows that instruction in the secondary school should place strong emphasis on helping students achieve such competence.

Emerging Concepts of Leadership

Leadership is often thought of as particular skills, a type of personality, an ability to "manage" people that operates in a similar fashion regardless of the situation. Good leaders in one

situation are expected to transfer to different situations without loss of efficiency. Study of group dynamics has brought attention to bear upon developing new concepts of democratic leadership.

Leadership for planned change. The projected concept of leadership in a democratic group is essentially that of a "change-agent." As such, the leadership function is seen as a transition:[26]

From	To
The leader achieving in an area that has prestige for the group. (Based upon hero worship and discipleship.)	The leader achieving because he is able to help the group achieve what it wants through co-operative action.
The leader achieving because he is feared.	

Change comes about in any individual or group whenever given forces tend to create a condition of imbalance. For example, when a community becomes aware of unsanitary conditions that endanger the health and life of all or a portion of its members, it may become disturbed to the point of exercising unlimited effort to remove undesirable conditions. The factor that caused the imbalance was the awareness of the condition. The leadership involved was related to helping in the analysis of the condition and guiding the resulting action.

The concept of leadership as planned change is based upon the assumption that human beings are capable of and need to control the change processes that necessarily take place in group activities. It adheres to the premise that controlled change is more desirable since otherwise group achievements are constantly threatened with opposition and defeat by unforeseen and uncontrollable forces.[27] It is supported by the suggestion that change can be more satisfactorily accomplished when the relationship between group acts and consequences is thoroughly understood and controlled. The function of leadership is conceived in this setting as a method of helping groups achieve this end. Principally, such leadership is concerned with helping in:[28]

1. Assessing possibilities for change.
2. Detecting and organizing forces working for a given change.

[26] Ruth Cunningham and associates, "Leadership and the Group," *NEA Journal*, 37:502–503, November, 1948.
[27] National Training Laboratory in Group Development, *op. cit.*, p. 109.
[28] *Loc. cit.*

3. Removing or reducing resistance to change.
4. Evaluating the changes prepared and effected in terms of (a) the efficiency of the methods employed, (b) the human consequences of such changes, and (c) the values operating to control their direction
5. Stabilizing changed behavior at a new level.

The goals or "targets" of the "change-agent" or leader in facilitating changes in human relations have been identified as: [29]

1. Working with individuals (in a group setting) in helping them gain skill in diagnosing and solving problems of:
   a. Innerpersonal adjustment
   b. Interpersonal adjustment
   c. Effective group participation
   d. Strategic social action.
2. Working with teams or groups, helping them develop skill as groups in diagnosing and solving problems of:
   a. Member and group functioning
   b. Intergroup relations
   c. Strategic social action.

Factors that influence leadership. It is doubtful whether there is such a person as a "born leader." [30] Those who are characterized as leaders usually are individuals who have become adept at human relations or else have perfected the techniques of "manipulation" that permit them to control and direct the acts of others. Neither can we consider leadership to be a stable quality that will function equally well with different groups and in various situations.

Three major factors have been discovered to play an important part in determining the quality of leadership: [31]

1. The characteristics of a given leader will be determined by his personality needs and emotional tensions. One leader in the National Training Laboratory for Group Development was described partially as follows: [32]

> . . . a major developmental theme in his life has been concerned with the conflict between his passive dependency needs and his desire to assume the responsibilities of an adult. It is possible that the conflict had its origin in his early experiences of rejection and lack of encouragement by his father. The consequences of this feeling of rejection have been a persistence of the dependency needs (at a deeper

[29] *Loc. cit.*

[30] Kenneth Benne, "Leaders Are Made, Not Born," *Childhood Education*, 24:202–8, January, 1948.

[31] Morton Deutsch, Albert Pepitone, and Alvin Zander, "Leadership in the Small Group," *The Journal of Social Issues*, 4:31–40, Spring, 1948.

[32] *Ibid.*, p. 32–33.

level of group maturity, self-discipline, and morale; and (4) an inappropriately chosen and inadequately defined group problem. Results of experimental research with groups suggest that when individual roles are in evidence in a group to any considerable extent, efforts should be directed toward analyzing their basic causes in order that appropriate group educational procedures may be instituted. Caution is recommended relative to the suppression of individual roles. Such action tends to deprive the group of the information needed for adequate self-diagnosis and therapy.

Individual roles of participation include:

1. The *aggressor* who may work in many ways—deflating the status of others; expressing disapproval of group procedures or objectives, and the acts or feelings of others; attacking the group; showing envy or resentment toward another's contribution; joking aggressively; or by seeking to take undue personal credit.
2. The *blocker* tends to be negativistic and stubbornly resistant, disagreeing or opposing beyond reason and attempting to maintain a particular issue before the group after it has been bypassed or rejected by other members.
3. The *recognition-seeker* endeavors in various ways to call attention to himself, e.g., through boasting, reporting on personal achievements, acting in unusual ways, struggling to prevent his being placed in an inferior position, and through actual physical and facial antics.
4. The *self-confessor* takes advantage of the group situation to express personal, irrelevant feelings, insights, ideologies.
5. The *playboy* makes a display of his lack of involvement in the group's process. He may exhibit various forms of cynicism, nonchalance, and horseplay.
6. The *dominator* tries to assert authority or superiority in manipulating the group or certain members of the group. Flattery, assertion of a superior status or right to attention, giving directions authoritatively, interruptions of contributions of others, excessive participation in a "having the final word" sense—all are familiar symptoms of such participation.
7. The *help-seeker* attempts to gain sympathy from other group members by expressions of insecurity, personal confusion, or self-depreciation beyond reason.
8. The *special-interest pleader* seeks to promote the welfare of another group to which he belongs, e.g., the "small business man," the "classroom teacher," or "labor." Personal prejudices and

biases are frequently cloaked in the stereotype that best fits individual desires.

Methods of increasing development of group member participation. A major objective in group work in a democratic culture is to raise the level of maturity of group interaction wherever human beings work together. In accordance with the types of group participation defined above, the task becomes one of helping group members improve the level of participation which in turn leads to a higher level of group activity. Utilization of both group task roles and building and maintenance roles will be determined in large part by the maturity of group members and the status of co-operative effort on a given problem. The extent, however, to which group members have moved beyond the level of individual roles will be determined largely by the quality of adjustment and extent of preparation for group endeavor possessed by group participants.

In most respects, the problem of group training is one of retraining since individuals have all learned ways of operating when in group situations. These may or may not support the democratic process of group endeavor. When the latter is the case, efforts toward re-training very likely may meet with resistance and defensive adjustments. Ways must be found to help individual group members and groups as wholes move from one level of human relationship to higher planes of co-operative effort. Without offending, it is necessary to assist groups to develop techniques for improving the quality of interaction and co-operative participation among members.

The National Training Laboratory in Group Development emphasized the following procedures in training group members for effective participation: [40]

1. The use of self-observation and diagnosis of group growth and development was found to be a primary means of member training.
   a. Helping group members become sensitive to the variety of roles involved in and required by group functioning.
   b. Training observers in group self-evaluation sessions.
   c. Recording segments of a group's discussion in order that the group may diagnose at a later time the quality of group discussion.
2. The use of role playing.[41]
3. Practice by various group members in the role of group observer.

[40] Kenneth D. Benne and Paul Sheats, *op. cit.*, p. 48–49.
[41] For description of this technique see next section.

Techniques for Changing Groups

A significant conclusion reached by those who have experimented with group development is that changes in individuals and groups do not necessarily follow the introduction of new and valid data or information. Many individuals act on the basis of stereotypes; they fail to respond, therefore, to reasoning. Under favorable conditions, however, it is possible to bring about change through individual group action. This is an important point since it has been found that we may abandon our stereotypes as the result of intellectual experiences without translating our changed hypothesis into action.[42] Significant, also, is the fact that it is easier to change the attitudes and behavior of a group of six members than it is to change six individuals who do not have the benefits of group experiences. Since basically we are concerned with improving the quality of group life and of the competence of individuals who compose groups, we need to consider techniques that may be employed in bringing about improvement of group productivity.

The procedures that have been employed in the study and training of groups may be considered as (1) those techniques that are designed for use in normal community and educational groups by the group itself and experienced leaders, the purpose being to strengthen group action and to improve member participation; and (2) special therapies developed to treat the mentally and emotionally ill through the employment of group environments and influences as a setting for treatment. The first of these two categories can be used effectively in normal educational situations. Care should be exercised, however, to avoid the selection of group therapies that are beyond the skill of untrained specialists. This problem becomes acute only when dealing with seriously maladjusted individuals for whom all group experience may represent critical conflicts in personal security and inter-personal relationships.

Group therapies, such as the psychodrama, the sociodrama, and the techniques of sociometry are designed primarily for the purpose of studying and analyzing the individual and his adjustment. Membership in a group is used as a means to the end of individual therapy. In modified forms, however, these techniques have been found useful to classroom teachers when the emphasis is placed upon group adjustment, understanding the individual and his re-

[42] Kurt Lewin, "Some Techniques for Changing Group Relations," *Intercultural Education News*, 7:8–9, June, 1946.

lationship to a group, and the dynamics of action and structure of a particular group.

In the analysis below, those techniques and therapies that may be employed in educational situations are briefly described. They are ways of providing for individual and group activities designed to help analyze the status of group endeavor to the end that improvements may be brought about.

Reality practice or role playing. This technique represents modifications of what many teachers will recognize as the dramatic method, or the method of creative dramatics. Essentially it is the procedure of arranging for several members of a group to enact, in the presence of other group members, a situation, a problem, a procedure, or a type of group structure. Through the use of this technique it is possible to sensitize members of a group to operations, member participation or roles, emotional factors, and blocks to group productivity. Analysis by group spectators is an important aspect of role playing. Through the study of an example of group operation, members are afforded an opportunity, in an unemotional and impersonal manner, to study their own group problems.[43]

The "buzz" session.[44] A procedure for stimulating wide participation in the discussion of group problems is that called the "buzz" session. Through this simple technique large groups are divided into small subgroups of four to eight members for the purpose of considering for the larger group a problem of concern to all. The results of "buzz" session deliberations are then reported to the larger group for consideration. Stress is usually placed in this type of group discussion upon identifying critical issues rather than upon finding convenient answers.

The group interview. The group interview is carried on in much the same manner as is the individual interview, except that several persons share co-operatively the role of the person interviewed in considering a group problem. Through conducting an interview of one individual relative to a problem faced by all or most members of a group it is possible to relieve anxieties, establish understandings and eliminate barriers to group activity.

The sociodrama. Similar to role playing except that all members of a group engage in the dramatic expression of common problems, the sociodrama represents another technique that may

[43] See Alvin Zander and Ronald Lippitt, "Reality-Practice as Educational Method," *Sociometry*, 7:129–151, 1944.

[44] For an example of a plan for this technique see Lindley J. Stiles, "Learning Through Sharing Ideas," *Discussion Manual* (for *Education for a Divided World*, by James Conant), Minneapolis, Minnesota: Professional Books, Inc., 1948.

be employed to help groups change. Principally its function is one of catharsis—the release of pent up feelings and tensions. In modified form the sociodrama is sometimes used in this manner. The teacher, showing a film that treats a critical social problem, interrupts the showing to permit members of the group to discuss and illustrate possible solutions to the situation in advance of seeing the solution suggested by the film.

Group discussion. As described earlier, this is an important technique in group development. Emphasis is placed upon perfecting the quality of group thinking appropriate to a democratic society.

Shock. Group shock treatments involve procedures for testing group morale and action under surprising conditions. A group can gain a measure of its stability under group shock conditions that are brought about by such action as (1) the failure of the leader to appear to take charge of a group at a time when he is expected; (2) sudden inclusion of a new member; (3) loss of a valuable member; and (4) conflicts over group leadership. As groups learn that they are able to withstand shock experiences, they gain confidence in the stability of the group and consequently raise their level of operation.

Demonstration. The group may be sensitized to its problems and processes through witnessing a demonstration of two different levels of group maturity. This technique makes it possible for members to identify comparably the status of their own group and to raise their insights relative to what might be accomplished through group action.

Decision-making practice. Groups gain skill in co-operative activity by practice in decision-making on simple problems that permit emphasis upon the process rather than upon the complexity of the problem. By studying the process of shared action at the decision-making level, members of a group become sensitive to the responsibility of learning ways of arriving at agreements acceptable to all rather than to a bare majority of group members.

Leadership practice. Rotation of leadership responsibilities is another means of raising the level of group productivity. As members experience democratic leadership responsibilities as well as membership roles they tend to increase their acceptance of the roles and functions of others. Individualistic roles may be supplanted by group-building participation through experience in accepting responsibility for group membership.

Catharsis. At times, arranging for and encouraging group participants to express their resistance to disturbances about group activities helps clear the air for further group growth. To be successful and useful, an atmosphere of complete permissiveness must be maintained.

Recreational experiences. Arranging for members of a group to participate in shared recreational experiences (parties, picnics, dinners, games) affords opportunities for strengthening rapport between individuals and in terms of the group as a whole. Every successful group uses, in one way or another, the effect of shared recreational experiences upon group members to further group growth.

Other techniques, such as panel discussions, reports, field trips, and the utilization of member talents, are familiar to all of us. When employed in the study of group development, these procedures are directed to analysis of the group process rather than toward problems under consideration. So far no mention has been made of techniques employed in groups to "de-status" members in order that all may function co-operatively without the limiting barriers of personal prerogatives. In adult groups this usually is directed toward group members who "pull rank" or depend on their past accomplishments as a means of maintaining unwarranted status in the group. Procedures employed to help all members of a group feel on the same level and of equal importance when dealing with adult groups include (1) calling members by first or actual names thereby avoiding the use of titles, degrees (e.g., Superintendent Brown becomes Joe Brown, Dr. Swink is called Sam Swink, and Mrs. Clark, President of the State League of Women Voters, is addressed simply as Ethel Clark); (2) sharing equally in group responsibilities; and (3) analyzing back-home or other-group status influences.

Evaluation of the Group Process

The quality of group maturity and productivity is determined by the degree to which members of the group perceive the status of group effort. When group participants understand their relationships with each other and with the leader, when all recognize the progress being made toward group objectives, the level of maturity is raised.

Studies in group dynamics have contributed to our understanding of ways in which group self-evaluation may be accomplished.

Certain evaluation procedures are concerned with individual adjustment and attitudes. Others relate to the group structure itself. Another category of techniques is concerned with the quality of group interaction. Stress is placed upon the necessity of groups to study themselves in order that analysis and evaluation of results may be made only by the individuals who have the power to improve the situation. Through self-evaluation, group members increase their understanding of the group process and become able to contribute to increased group development.

In order to evaluate itself a group needs to answer the following kinds of questions about its organization and activities: [45]

1. Does the group have a direction toward a common goal? Evidence is needed relative to the success the group is achieving in maintaining direction.
2. What progress is being made through group discussion? The group needs to know whether it is still in the stage of diagnosing the problem or has moved to the stage of suggesting solutions or is ready for final decisions.
3. What is the rate of group progress toward its objective? The decision relative to whether discussion is "bogging down" or moving normally is necessary for understanding group results.
4. Are all resources, creative and analytical abilities of *all* group members, being used in seeking the solution of group problems?
5. Are group members increasing their skill and ability in working together efficiently and harmoniously?

The group observer. A significant contribution to the techniques of group self-evaluation is the utilization of one member of the group in the role of observer of the group process. The function of the group observer is to observe the group process, to record what transpires during the group discussion, and then report to members of the group his observations and interpretations of what happened. The observer is expected to:

1. Give full attention to the work of recording incidents and the characteristics of group action. He does not participate in group discussion, devoting all his efforts to the activities of members of the group process.
2. Focus attention upon the group process rather than upon the subjects or problems under discussion within the group.
3. Endeavor to record accurately the behavior of the group.

[45] David H. Jenkins, "Feedback and Group Self-Evaluation," *The Journal of Social Issues*, 4:50–60, Spring, 1948.

4. Seek to analyze the forces that inhibited or facilitated group progress.

The function of the group observer may be better understood by examining the report of a Group Discussion Observation by Jenkins.[46] Attention was given by this observer, it will be noted, to such factors as direction and orientation, motivation and unity, group atmosphere, and to the individual contributions of members of the group.

GROUP DISCUSSION OBSERVATION [47]

Group Planning Committee Date: July 1, 1947

A. Direction and Orientation.
   1. How far did we get? *Covered only half of agenda. Spent too much time on details.*
   2. To what extent did we understand what we are trying to do? *Several members not clear on goals. Some continual disagreements on purposes.*
   3. To what extent did we understand how we are trying to do it? *Almost no discussion about procedure, resulting in confusion at times.*
   4. To what extent were we stymied by lack of information? *None. Relevant information at hand in group.*

B. Motivation and Unity.
   1. Were all of us equally interested in what we were trying to do? *No. Two or three not sure problem is worth the time.*
   2. Was interest maintained or did it lag? *Slowed down during time leader made lengthy contribution.*
   3. To what extent did the group feel united by a common purpose? *Rather low feelings of any unity. Two or three not feeling united with group at all.*
   4. To what extent were we able to subordinate individual interests to the common goal? *Antagonisms between R. K. and L. M. outside of group tended to show up here.*

C. Atmosphere.
   1. What was the general atmosphere of the group?
      (a) Formal or informal? *Fairly formal, although some first names used.*
      (b) Permissive or inhibited: *Fairly permissive except for period after leader lectured.*
      (c) Co-operative or competitive? *Little competition, some positive evidence of co-operative feelings.*
      (d) Friendly or hostile? *Lukewarm friendly.*

[46] David H. Jenkins, *op. cit.*, p. 54.
[47] *Ibid.*

D. Contributions of members.
   1. Was participation general or lopsided? *All participated at least to some extent. Some monopolization by B. C. and W. U.*
   2. Were contributions on the beam or off the tangent? *Hard to determine as goals not clear.*
   3. Did contributions indicate that those who made them were listening carefully to what others in the group had to say? *At points of higher interest in the discussion some were not listening to others.*
   4. Were contributions factual and problem-centered or were the contributors unable to rise above their preconceived notions and emotionally held points of view? *Some tendency toward bias, especially during first hour.*

E. Contributions of Special Members of the Group.
   1. How well did special members serve the group?
      (a) Leader: *A little tendency to dominate, but catches himself before group reacts negatively. Tried unsuccessfully to get group to draw conclusions.*
      (b) Recorder: *Asked for clarification occasionally. This seemed to help group to clarify for itself.*
      (c) Resource person: *None in group today.*

F. Other Observations.
   1. *J. R. and B. J. criticized solutions while they were being suggested. Is that why so few suggestions came out?*

Feedback of observer's findings. Groups that are studying their activities with the use of a group observer interrupt group deliberations periodically in order to ask that a report be made on how well the group is functioning. This process is called in the field of group dynamics "feedback" since it involves the giving back of information from the observer to group members. Groups which are experimenting for the first time with the use of an observer usually find that they are a bit sensitive to criticisms of their actions. To avoid self-consciousness and to reduce resistance the observer may: [48]

1. Direct initial and perhaps the majority of comments to the techniques employed by the leader. If the leader accepts comments easily, group members will gain security in participating in the process of self-evaluation.
2. Phrase comments and data in the form of tentative hypotheses or expressions of personal feelings to which the group members are asked to compare their own feelings.

[48] *Ibid.*, pp. 57–8.

3. Present findings in a tentative manner that permits the group to reject them if members are not yet emotionally ready to consider the evidence.

4. Mention to the group only those serious personal conflicts for which sufficient maturity and acceptance have been developed. In this way the danger of intensifying conflicts and emotional tensions may be avoided during the initial stages of self-evaluation.

5. Emphasize effective action of the group as a point of beginning, but lead easily into difficulties encountered.

6. Avoid forcing conclusions and interpretations upon members of the group.

Other techniques of group self-evaluation. In any type of self-evaluation, whether through the use of the observer, a recording of a discussion, or the dependence upon individual remembrance of what happened, it is important that the group (1) reach a common agreement on what actually happened; (2) analyze the reasons behind the event; and (3) suggest some ways of improving the procedure in the future.

The end-of-meeting suggestion, the evaluation blank, represents a simple means of collecting opinions about the quality of a particular group experience. Such forms usually provide for participants to report the general opinion of a group meeting; the weaknesses they felt in the group process; any strong points that should be maintained; and improvements that should be made in future group discussions. The tabulated results of such questionnaires may serve as a source for group self-evaluation.

Recorded playbacks have already been mentioned as a technique adapted to group self-evaluation. Other procedures that have been employed include the review of group records, evaluation sessions in which members discuss what happened, sociometric questionnaires (on which members record reactions to each other), and group test situations.

The success of group action and the growth of group maturity are furthered through group self-evaluation. In a democratic group this is the only type of evaluation appropriate. Conscious effort can be made by members of all groups to understand the factors in group operation and to seek to raise the level of competence of group thinking and action. To this end the techniques of group evaluation, refined through actual experiments with functioning groups, with particular emphasis upon the use of the group observer, make a maximum contribution.

Summary

Results of research in the field of group dynamics contribute directly to teaching method for the later years of the secondary school with specific implications for teaching in the junior college. Studies of group development seek to identify the causes and effects of forces operative in any group. Their purpose is to help group leaders and members become sensitive to their problems and competent to solve them.

Although the movement is recent, experimental workers of the Research Center for Group Dynamics and in two National Training Laboratories in Group Development have already discovered ways of improving the quality of democratic group action. In particular, group dynamics research contributes to teaching-learning situations by supplying data related to (1) the group influence upon individual functioning and development; (2) techniques for developing skills in group participation; and (3) the group as a unit in educational planning.

Groups, like individuals, possess personalities that reflect their behavior under varying circumstances. The quality and nature of group life contributes significantly to determining the behavior of its members. By increasing the maturity of group functioning and productivity we are able to help individuals attain higher levels of democratic action. An indispensable aspect of association of human beings is group discussion. The level of group thinking and commensurate action is the product of the ability of group members to exchange ideas effectively, to consider common problems, to utilize individual competencies, and to evaluate co-operatively the results of group discussion.

Developing concepts of leadership center about the ability and willingness of the leader to seek to bring about planned change by helping groups identify and solve common problems. Leadership being so conceived, the leader functions as a "change-agent" in facilitating improvement of human relations by working with both individuals and groups. Leadership, like other forms of activity and adjustment, is influenced by the personal adjustment and emotional security of the leader, by the particular environment of a group, and by the concept of the function of leadership held.

Group participation, which may also be leadership in various forms, is found to exist in the assumption of group task roles, in participation designed to further and improve the functioning of the group itself, and in individual or nongroup roles. By helping

members become sensitive to the group process we increase their ability to engage in useful group participation. Certain techniques and therapies have proved valuable to the task of training group members. Reality practice or role playing and the use of the group observer to evaluate the group process in action have been used extensively in studies of group development.

Related Experiences

1. Visit meetings of groups within your community for the purpose of (1) finding evidence of need for group growth; (2) studying the quality of group member participation.
2. Choose a group you know for the purpose of making an analysis of its personality. Use personality factors suggested in this chapter.
3. Analyze the structure of your own teacher-education group in an effort to identify several of the factors in group growth described by the National Training Laboratory in Group Development.
4. Experiment in your class group with the method of conducting a group discussion in accordance with the factors listed in this chapter.
5. Visit a nearby secondary school in order to study the quality of leadership exercised by classroom teachers. Compare your findings with those of your classmates.
6. Organize an experiment in group dynamics in your own class group. Using the services of a group observer, study the participating roles of various members and the quality of group operation. See if improvement in group thinking and action can be brought about. Arrange for members to take turns serving as the observer for the group.
7. If other members of your group are willing, utilize the technique of self-evaluation as a regular aspect of your group life together. Whenever your group relationships and productivity seem to "bog down," ask for a self-evaluation period to find out what is wrong and how to correct it.
8. Analyze the leadership skills, understandings, and processes operating when various members of your group participate in group activities.
9. Make anecdotal records as you visit classes in secondary schools and during attendance of your college classes of the types of member participation in evidence. See if you can find examples of the various categories used in this chapter.

Suggested Readings

BARKER, ROGER G., KOUNIN, JACOB S., AND WRIGHT, HERBERT F., (editors) *Child Behavior and Development.* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1943, 652 pp.

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BRADFORD, LELAND P., BENNE, KENNETH D., AND LIPPITT, RONALD. "The Promise of Group Dynamics for Education," *NEA Journal,* 37: 350–52, September, 1948.

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CUNNINGHAM, RUTH, AND ASSOCIATES, "Group Discipline," *NEA Journal* 38:34–35, January, 1949.

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HUSZAR, GEORGE B. DE, *Practical Applications of Democracy.* New York: Harper and Brothers, 1945, 140 pp.

KAY, LILLIAN WALD, "Role-Playing as a Teaching Aid," *Sociometry,* 9:263–74, May-August, 1946.

LEWIN, KURT, "Some Techniques for Changing Group Relations," *Intercultural Education News,* 7:8–9, June, 1946.

———, "The Research Center for Group Dynamics at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology," *Sociometry,* 8:126–136, May, 1945.

LIPPITT, RONALD, AND ZANDER, ALVIN, "Reality-Practice as Educational Method," *Psychodrama Monographs,* 9:5–27, 1944.

National Training Laboratory in Group Development, *Report of the Second Summer Laboratory Session.* Bethel, Maine: National Education Association and Research Center for Group Dynamics, University of Michigan, June 13 to July 3, 1948, 136 pp.

NYLEN, DONALD, AND BRADFORD, LELAND, P., "We Can Work Together," *NEA Journal,* 37:436–38, October, 1948.

SLAVSON, S. R. (Editor), *The Practice of Group Therapy.* New York: International Universities Press, 1947, 271 pp.

Chapter 16

TRENDS IN TEACHING

Why is it important that particular aspects of teaching be in agreement with the general pattern and purpose of secondary school teaching? . . . Characterize trends that are related to planning and organizing teaching. . . . Describe the resource unit and its relationship to method. . . . Characterize the nature of assignments most appropriate for democratic teaching procedures. . . . How are we changing our concept of supervised study? . . . What should be done about homework in modern schools? . . . What principles guide us in grouping students into instructional units? . . . Describe the transition taking place with respect to the use of instructional materials. . . . How have we improved our use of audio-visual aids? . . . What roles do community resources and work experiences play as aspects of instruction? . . . Should all teachers assume responsibility for developing the tools of communication? . . . How are drills, review, and remedial instruction used and developed today? . . . Characterize tendencies with respect to appraising, recording and reporting student progress. . . . Describe the purpose and types of progress reporting systems. . . . Describe the trend in disciplinary procedures. . . . In what ways are group guidance and home visitation related to teaching? . . . Why should teachers consider supervision of extraclass activities an important part of the responsibilities of teaching? . . . What transitions are in progress relative to the attitudes of communities and teachers toward teacher-participation in the life of their communities? . . . Describe the teacher as a public relations official. . . . What responsibilities do teachers have for formulating school policy and for curriculum improvement? . . . Consider issues that at present should be the concern of all secondary school teachers. . . . Characterize the nature of learn-

ing activity. . . . Analyze the problems that loom as critical to teachers in all fields of secondary education today. . . . How may teachers contribute directly to the reduction of their teaching loads? . . . What responsibility should teachers assume for democratic administration and supervision? . . . Identify and indicate the status of the major factors that impinge upon teacher welfare.

Frequently, gross inconsistencies are found in the purposes that are associated with various aspects of the teaching process. We may, for example, encourage co-operative sharing in the development of learning experiences and, at the same time, depend upon standardized subject-matter examinations as a basis for evaluating growth. In other instances, it is possible that we may be relying upon negative disciplinary practices—punishments of one sort or another—in an effort to arouse interest and bring about the assumption of responsibilities in group activity. Many such contradictions may result unless consistent effort is made to harmonize practice with our theory of teaching.

Major aspects and phases of teaching that are encountered in every subject-matter area and at all three levels of the secondary school include the following procedures and processes: (1) planning, organizing and carrying out instruction; (2) making effective use of all available resources for teaching; (3) developing techniques that contribute to mastery of the tools of communication; (4) appraising, recording, and reporting student progress; (5) regulating conduct and behavior; and (6) furnishing guidance, supervising study, providing for home visitation, arranging for participating in co-operative curriculum development and various similar activities.

In most textbooks on methods of teaching, concern is expressed not so much for theory of teaching as for specific aspects of methods of teaching. For the purpose of this discussion it is important to identify briefly the important steps that can be taken to adapt the theory of democratic method to the various aspects and phases of teaching procedure.

Planning Teaching

All teaching involves organization. In the secondary school, procedures related to selecting materials, making assignments, planning homework, supervising study, grouping students in

and within classes, designating levels of achievement, and administering various types of study routines have been emphasized throughout the years as essential elements in the teaching process.

Pre-planning. Emphasis is shifting from the procedures involved in choosing a basic text, deciding upon teacher and student purposes, and preparing questions to be asked during the recitation to such procedures as becoming acquainted with the backgrounds, needs and abilities of a student group; developing or making available a variety of materials in both visual and auditory, as well as verbal, media; co-operative planning with other teachers; and identifying practical ways to establish and maintain congenial rapport and co-operative effort among students. Teacher-student sharing demands more pre-planning than do the methods that utilize day-to-day assignments about which questions are asked or the lecture method in which the instructor imparts information to the class or discusses the textbook.

Co-operative pre-planning is coming to be regarded as an integral aspect of teaching and learning. Teachers and students plan together for each phase of an educational experience. Field trips, the use of audio-visual aids, the choice of units, committees, working procedures, ways of evaluating accomplishment—all afford worthwhile opportunities for co-operative experience in pre-planning.

Pre-planning can be classified into the following four major areas of preparation:

1. Co-operative planning that takes place between teachers, administrators, supervisors, parents, and students for the purpose of setting up the curricular framework in which learning experiences are to take place.
2. Planning by the teacher that involves developing resource units; gathering materials of instruction; studying the backgrounds and individual differences of members of the group; becoming acquainted with home conditions of students; selecting appropriate procedures for the development of group rapport; and deciding upon ways of initiating teacher-student co-operation in the process of planning.
3. Co-operative planning by students and teachers in developing learning experiences characterized by opportunities for shared responsibility for decision making in relationship to common purposes.
4. Individual planning between the teacher and a single student in terms of individual needs and adjustments.

Selected References

H. H. Giles, *Teacher-Pupil Planning.* New York: Harper and Brothers, 1941, pp. 81–89.

William H. Burton, *The Guidance of Learning Activities.* New York: D. Appleton-Century-Crofts Company, 1944, pp. 364–309.

Organizing. Trends with respect to the type of organizing ability used by secondary school teachers may be illustrated as follows:

From	To
1. Organizing subject matter logically into a series of progressively difficult units or lessons.	1. Organizing resource units that readily suggest ideas, activities, materials, and other instructional aids.
2. Assigning responsibilities within a group to the end that all are kept busy with their study and reciting.	2. Helping groups organize themselves in such a manner that the assignment of responsibilities and tasks related to group projects and individual needs can be appropriately distributed by co-operative procedures.
3. Emphasis upon planning for others.	3. Emphasis upon helping others plan for themselves.

Selected References

James L. Mursell, *Successful Teaching.* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1946, pp. 262–280.

H. H. Giles, *Teacher-Pupil Planning.* New York: Harper and Brothers, 1941, pp. 80–89, 142–166.

Developing resource units. The broad unit approach to teaching necessitates organization of learning experiences into closely related, comprehensive considerations of problems, movements, developments, or interests. Instead of relying upon a single textbook with perhaps the help of a few supplementary materials, it becomes necessary to draw heavily upon subject matter and teaching aids from several fields or sources. The "source" or resource unit is the major means of providing assistance to a group that is developing experiences in terms of student needs, interests, and continuing growth.

The resource unit has been defined as a systematic and comprehensive survey, analysis, and organization of the possible problems, issues, activities, and teaching aids that a teacher might use

in building units of work co-operatively with students.[1] Its major purposes have been stated as follows: [2]

1. To furnish suggestions for materials, methods, activities, teaching aids, and evaluative procedures for building a learning unit.
2. To provide a means of helping the teacher to organize materials so that he can depart from the traditional use of the textbook as a guide in curriculum development.
3. To provide suggestions for the teacher for translating an educational philosophy into practice.
4. To serve as a guide in helping the teacher to include in the learning unit certain important values basic to education in a democracy.
5. To sensitize the teacher to all of the significant problems and issues that have a bearing on any area of living.
6. To utilize the personnel resources of the school appropriate to the co-operative pre-planning of a particular unit.
7. To conserve the time of the teacher.
8. To make it possible to have teaching materials available when needed.

Some school systems have arranged for committees of teachers to work co-operatively upon resource units. During World War II, the Denver, Colorado, public schools used this procedure in developing resource units for general education courses to serve as a basis for the study of the nation-wide rationing program. The emergency character of the problem was such that members of the committee for the resource unit were relieved from teaching duties to complete the project. When such procedures are followed in a school, resource unit committees are usually composed of representatives from several subject-matter areas as well as from the common learning program. In this way it is possible to build a resource unit around a problem in such a manner that information from as many pertinent subject fields as possible is focused upon the problem under consideration.

Selected References

Harold Alberty, *Reorganizing the High-School Curriculum*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1947, pp. 249–336.

Mildred Biddick, *The Preparation and Use of Source Units*. New York: Progressive Education Association, 1940, mimeographed, 74 pp.

Harold C. Hand (editor) and others, *Living in the Atomic Age, A Resource Unit for Teachers in Secondary Schools*. Urbana, Illinois: Bureau of Educational Research College of Education, University of Illinois, Educational Research Circular No. 57, December 3, 1946, 59 pp.

[1] Harold Alberty, *Reorganizing the High-School Curriculum*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1947, p. 271.

[2] *Ibid.*, p. 272.

Assignments. Professional literature associated with the aims and policies of the traditionally conceived secondary schools places considerable emphasis upon effective ways to make assignments. Attention is usually centered upon such factors as the time for making the assignment, especially as related to the beginning or end of the class period; ways of impressing the importance of the assignment upon students; techniques for making the assignment clear and specific in order that all may understand what is expected by the teacher; and the making of differentiated assignments.

With respect to democratic teaching, trends related to assignments include the following:

1. Co-operative identification of tasks to be performed by students and their teacher.
2. Development of individual and group work schedules and project descriptions that form the basis for future effort.
3. Use of long-term agreements as to what needs to be accomplished.
4. Provision for differentiated assignments adapted to the needs, interests, and abilities of all members of the group with recognition for the fact that students may be working toward differing individual goals.
5. Some groups have developed systems for devising project plans that make provision for a written record of agreements reached by the students and their teachers relative to given learning activities.

In school systems in which co-operative sharing is employed as a teaching method, self-assignments and co-operative agreements take the place of teacher-imposed assignments that have been considered necessary in situations in which the teacher directs and regulates learning. Steps in the development of such working agreements include the following:

1. Formulation by students and the teacher of goals and purposes anticipated to be contributive to the major learning experience sought.
2. Analysis of what needs to be accomplished in order to achieve the ends desired.
3. Consideration of the individual needs, interests, and goals of group members in order to determine whether they can be attained by development of the project being contemplated by the group.

4. Arriving at group agreements relative to the individual assignments of "who is to do what."
5. Evaluation of agreements in terms of individual abilities and interests, availability of resources, and the worthwhileness of the experiences involved.

Selected References

Harl R. Douglass and Hubert H. Mills, *Teaching in High School.* New York: The Ronald Press, 1948, pp. 149–155.

William H. Burton, *The Guidance of Learning Activities.* New York: D. Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1944, pp. 312–324.

Supervised study. The growing recognition that secondary school students are unable or unwilling to carry out many teacher-made assignments independently has led to extensive consideration of ways to provide assistance and direction to the learner's study activities. Arrangements for this service range from providing instructions in "how to study" to setting aside a part of each class period in which the teacher is required to help students prepare their next day's assignments.

Trends related to supervised study may be characterized as follows:

From	Toward
1. Study conceived to be a process of mastering teacher-made assignments in preparation for recitation or examination periods. Activities characterized largely by reading, outlining, working problems, or memorizing.	1. Study recognized as the search for the solution of a recognized problem or for the satisfaction of a need. Activities may include reading; radio and phonograph listening; observing motion pictures, television, slides, or other visual materials; experimenting, conducting research; interviewing; visiting a point of interest; discussing and any other type of experience related to relevant individual or group needs.
2. Individual study activities.	2. Co-operative study—working on a group project.
3. Teacher-provided instruction concerning ways to study.	3. Teacher-shared group activities. Students assisted in discovering appropriate procedures and techniques in relation to their problems.

From (*continued*)	Toward (*continued*)
4. Infrequent concern with problems or needs recognized by students.	4. Recognizing problems or needs before study takes place.
5. Performance designed to satisfy teacher or to gain high marks.	5. Participation in order to contribute to the realization of individual and group purposes.
6. Study considered as a discrete phase of the learning process. Scheduled separately during part of class period, in a separate study hall, or during out-of-school time.	6. Study regarded as integral aspect of a total process of purposing, planning, executing, and evaluating. Takes place throughout learning experiences. Effort is made to develop learning situations that permit all of the activities associated with instruction to be correlated into one functional, contributive experience.
7. Checking the results of study carefully and formally by the teacher in order to motivate further effort. Purpose of instruction seen as that of making students study.	7. Informal and co-operative evaluation of results of study whenever needed in terms of their contribution to recognized objectives. Study considered to be a means to an end.
8. Study carried on in school, usually under the immediate supervision of a teacher.	8. Encouragement of students—even in study halls—to assume independent responsibility for efficient conduct of study activities.

Selected References

Harl R. Douglass and Hubert H. Mills, *Teaching in High School.* New York: The Ronald Press, 1948, pp. 139–179.

William H. Burton, *The Guidance of Learning Activities.* New York: D. Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1944, pp. 325–350.

Homework. Homework or study, formerly considered an important aspect of secondary education, has now come to be generally recognized as an unsatisfactory and undependable way in which to promote growth. This conclusion is based upon the following arguments:

1. Many students do not have appropriate places to study in their homes.

2. Students who have already devoted approximately seven or eight hours of their day to school work should not be expected to spend an additional two to four hours studying during the evening.

3. Many assignments fall in the classification of "busy work." They require students to go through routines with which they are already familiar.

4. Students required to do homework are deprived of opportunities for recreational, cultural pursuits and for wholesome associations within their families.

5. A majority of students do not have in their homes appropriate resources for study; as a result, assignments must be made from a single textbook.

6. Parents frequently use arbitrary methods to compel students to do their "homework," but are unable to offer genuine assistance.

7. Since most homework assignments necessarily involve individual activities, teachers do not have time to make adequate evaluation of their contributions to learning.

In noting the fact that homework, as it is most frequently conceived, contributes little to growth and development, it should be recognized that we are confronted with two possible alternatives when considering how we should deal with this problem in connection with our own teaching: (1) homework can be completely discontinued as an aspect of school learning experiences; or (2) we can take steps to permit out-of-school study to become a natural, reasonable part of the learning process. If we choose the latter course of action the following principles may be helpful:

1. All out-of-school study should grow naturally out of the projects, problems, and group activities that develop within a class group.

2. Home study should be concerned with tasks that cannot be completed better while in school, such as listening to radio programs, reading daily papers, interviewing, travel, visiting points of interest (over week-ends), and committee work.

3. Homework should provide opportunities for the improvement of social skills.

4. Out-of-school study should be for the purpose of relating school experiences to the life of the community, e.g., several students might attend an evening meeting of a civic organization in order to observe directly efforts to solve community problems.

5. Furthering of habits, activities, and interests that will continue throughout life should be an important objective of study

activities carried on out of school. For example, such activities could be related to the development and improvement of reading habits, radio listening, movie appreciation, hobbies, recreational activities, and habits of participation in community life.

Selected References

Harl R. Douglass and Hubert H. Mills, *Teaching in High School.* New York: The Ronald Press, 1948, pp. 143–144.

Charles A. Simonds, "Too Much Home Study in the Junior High?" *California Journal of Secondary Education,* 20:53–56, Jan. 1945.

William H. Burton, *The Guidance of Learning Activities.* New York: D. Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1944, 344 pp.

Grouping students. As secondary schools increased in size it became necessary to develop techniques for organizing students into instructional groups of a practical size and reasonably uniform quality or functional ability. Methods employed in different situations placed varying emphasis on: (1) grouping by alphabetical order; (2) homogeneous grouping according to measured intelligence, scores on achievement tests, and perhaps other factors; (3) random groupings; (4) heterogeneous grouping—systematically selecting for each group students with differences in ability, interests, sex, maturity; and (5) grouping by sex.

Secondary schools that are moving in the direction of respecting individual students now provide for shared responsibilities between students and their teacher for the manner in which each grouping is done, and they are giving special attention to providing security and happiness for all students. Schools in which this attitude prevails generally adhere to such principles as the following in grouping students:

1. A grouping plan must respect the dignity, worth, social sensitivity and personal security of all students.
2. The most reliable bases for grouping are individual interests, goals, and needs as recognized by students.
3. The type of grouping should contribute to the maintenance of mutual respect and understanding as well as to the social integration of all students.
4. One of the most important requirements for acceptability of a plan of grouping is its flexibility with respect to freedom of students to select and to change group associations. If a student is denied acceptance for such a reason as his race, religion, nationality, home background, intelligence, or his previous achievement, the plan of grouping so characterized may be suspected of harbor-

ing attitudes or policies that are not compatible with processes and standards in harmony with democracy.

5. The principal purpose of grouping is to obtain instructional units small enough to insure establishment of group rapport and individual acquaintanceship and guidance. Unless this is the case, such services as counseling and home visitation and such policies as co-operative sharing may not be undertaken with the prospect of maximum success.

Major trends in grouping indicated for the development of school experiences in accord with the ideals of our society can be illustrated as follows:

From	Toward
1. Grouping for convenience of teachers in teaching logically organized subject matter—in order to separate the bright from the dull. *Characterized by* little concern for effect upon individual students. *Supported by* such arguments as, "Students are happier when grouped with others of their kind."	1. Grouping in terms of interests, purposes, and in consideration of the happiness, security, and adjustment of students. *Characterized by* effort to help all students find acceptance within a congenial group. *Supported by* the belief that natural democratic groupings afford students experiences that contribute to the development of appropriate social attitudes and values.
2. The notion that what students can be made to learn outweighs their feelings about the *way* in which they are made to learn.	2. The idea that the way students feel about their school experiences will do much to determine the products of learning when values, attitudes, and social skills are recognized to be outstandingly important objectives of instruction.

Selected References

Harold Alberty, *Reorganizing the High-School Curriculum.* New York: The Macmillan Company, 1947, pp. 229–231.

H. H. Giles, *Teacher-Pupil Planning.* New York: Harper and Brothers, 1941, p. 311.

Kate V. Wofford, *Teaching in Small Schools.* New York: The Macmillan Company, 1947, pp. 66–89.

Improving the Tools of Communication

Concern for individual differences in maturation patterns with respect to various abilities and recognition that the development of certain skills is affected by interest and recognition of utility have tended to refute the belief that the elementary school should be primarily responsible for developing the basic tools of communication. Until recently, teachers in secondary schools were inclined to blame teaching in the lower schools when students failed to demonstrate competence in such skills of communication as speaking, writing, reading, computation, listening, or observing. Now, however, increased emphasis is placed upon responsibility of the secondary school to advance the learner's competence in such skills. This point of view is in accordance with the recognition that:

1. Many important skills cannot be mastered until youth reaches adolescence.
2. Some individuals may not develop competence in basic tools during their elementary school years because of health difficulties, lack of interest, slow maturation, or several other factors.
3. Different subject areas require different types of competence in the basic tools, e.g., success in high school physics depends upon a type of reading skill that is distinctly different from that needed for a course in American history.
4. Placement of students should be determined with more consideration for their acceptance within peer-groups than for their level of competence in communication skills.
5. Development of competency in basic skills requires continuous attention. At each stage of growth there is need for practice that is guided by teachers who understand the processes and techniques of skill development.

There is a trend toward encouraging every teacher to become skilled in the techniques of helping students develop the basic tools of communication necessary for successful learning in their field. Instruction based on such a policy calls for development of ability to teach beginning and advanced skills in reading, observation (as in connection with experiments, films, field trips, and art appreciation), number usage, speaking, writing, and listening. Most teachers also will need to be able to help students improve their ability to discuss ideas and to organize evidence related to the problems studied. Special attention should be given to pro-

viding materials and equipment adapted to students who are particularly in need of help to improve their ability to communicate.

Drill. Little emphasis is placed upon drill at the secondary school level. It is now recognized that drill, which was at one time considered the most important factor in learning, must be accompanied by interests, desire to achieve, understanding, and readiness if it is to contribute effectively to learning. As students gain insight into the relationship between learning activities and recognized and desired objectives, the amount of drill necessary to produce results is reduced.

The usefulness of drill is restricted largely to *memorizing* rules, facts, literary passages, formulae, compounds, names, and dates; and to *developing* physical, social, and verbal skills and social, intellectual, moral, and work habits.

Trends with respect to employment of drill as an aspect of teaching are in the direction of:

1. Promoting self-drill.
2. Helping students learn to share co-operatively in the process of providing drill.
3. Making drill a healthful, wholesome experience rather than a dull routine.
4. Avoiding mass drill for an entire class.
5. Developing a variety of experiences that afford opportunity for practice.
6. Helping students who have been regarded as being most in need of drill overcome their weaknesses by other methods.
7. Making special effort to be sure that the student is well aware of the relationship of drill to his purposes, needs, and interests.
8. Utilizing drill only in terms of skills that are functional and immediately useful.

Selected References

Harl R. Douglass and Hubert H. Mills, *Teaching in High School.* New York: The Ronald Press, 1948, pp. 243–258.

J. G. Umstattd, *Secondary School Teaching.* New York: Ginn and Company, 1944, pp. 280–284.

Thomas M. Risk, *Principles and Practices of Teaching in Secondary Schools* (Second edition). New York: American Book Company, 1947, pp. 386–390.

Review. The transition with respect to the function of review in the teaching-learning process is characterized as follows:

From	To
1. Review characterized by additional drill on basic facts and skills.	1. Emphasis upon organizing, understanding, synthesis, comparison, and relationships.
2. Review at the end of specific periods of study, lessons, units, semester.	2. Review a continuous process of determining the value of and the direction in which progress is being made. Needed for growth and overcoming weaknesses.
3. Emphasis upon same materials, skills, concepts, meanings —object was to help all students find, establish, and fix similar outcomes of learning.	3. Differentiation in terms of individual differences, needs, interests, specific goals with the recognition that no two individuals derive identical meanings from the same learning experience.
4. Stress on review as preparation for teacher-administered examinations.	4. Realization that review, itself, is a phase of evaluation that best may be undertaken on a co-operative basis.
5. Regarding review simply as the concluding step in a learning experience.	5. Using review as a basis for identifying interests, needs, and purposes in the process of planning for future learning experiences.
6. Using review mainly as a device to motivate learning.	6. Regarding review as a natural outgrowth of self-motivation in the learning process.
7. Review that is almost exclusively teacher-directed by means of questions, assigned problems, and emphasis upon important facts.	7. Co-operative action by members of a group.

Selected References

James L. Mursell, *Successful Teaching.* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1946, pp. 250–261.

William H. Burton, *The Guidance of Learning Activities.* New York: D. Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1944, pp. 403–404.

Harl R. Douglass and Hubert H. Mills, *Teaching in High School.* New York: The Ronald Press, 1948, pp. 243–258.

Remedial instruction. Remedial instruction has been described as being concerned with two deficiencies in students—the presence of bad habits and the absence of good habits. As such, it is

concerned with (a) eliminating ineffective habits and unwholesome attitudes and reteaching skills that have been incorrectly learned, i.e., remedying defects; and (b) teaching habits, skills, and attitudes not previously learned by the pupil.[4]

Those who have believed in homogeneous grouping have frequently favored the procedure of grouping all "remedial" cases into special groups for which an expert in remedial instruction can be employed. This procedure is now giving way to the practice of considering every staff member a teacher of remedial work. Actually, the concept of remedial teaching should be thought of as insight and procedure that may be needed to cope successfully with any situation in which the student is deficient in basic skills.

When senior high school teachers find it necessary to help students learn to read, which is a natural enough condition even at this level, they may properly view such effort as remedial instruction and should not look upon it as an altogether unreasonable imposition upon their other duties. For extreme cases it may be necessary to provide special instruction, but when this is done every effort should be made to avoid separating the student from his established relations with peer-groups or humiliating him in any way because of his deficiency. Particular effort should be made to help the student acquire skills that will enable him to progress normally in terms of worthwhile interests and vocational plans. For typical "remedial" instructional problems, however, the needs of most students are better served if all teachers develop competence in the diagnosis and treatment of deficiencies.

Selected References

Glenn Myers Blair, *Diagnostic and Remedial Teaching in Secondary Schools.* New York: The Macmillan Company, 1947, 422 pp.

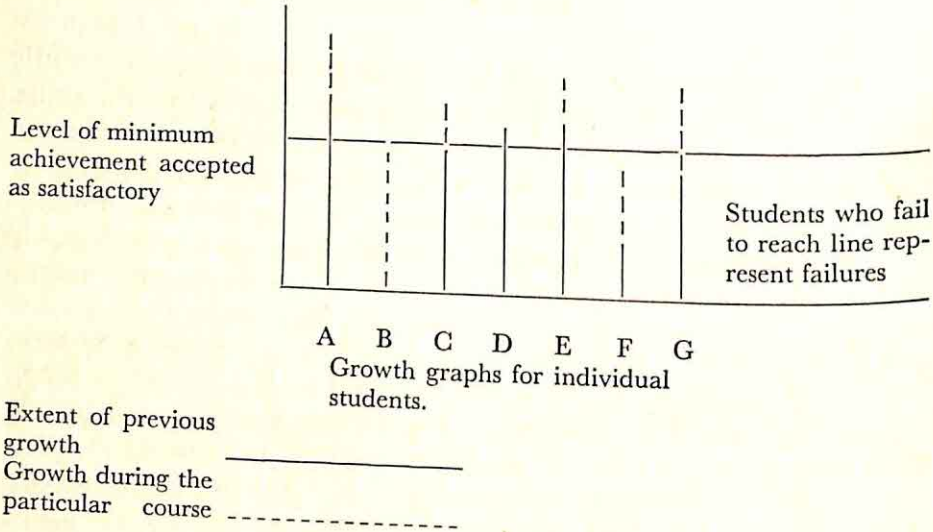
Guy L. Bond and Eva Bond, *Developmental Reading in High School.* New York: The Macmillan Company, 1941, 363 pp.

Appraising, Recording, and Reporting Progress

Few problems in education are more troublesome than those related to judging and reporting the progress of students. Concern centers about the difficulties connected with establishing growth standards, measuring progress by use of examinations, assigning marks and credit, reporting to parents, and keeping records.

[4] Glenn Myers Blair, *Diagnostic and Remedial Teaching in Secondary Schools.* New York: The Macmillan Company, 1947, p. 15.

Establishing growth standards. In many schools growth standards are set arbitrarily by the teacher or a committee of teachers, by supervisory or administrative officials, or by norms of commercially distributed achievement tests. Such standards—sometimes referred to as minimum essentials—make little allowance for individual abilities or needs, comparative development, or the intensity of effort expended by individual learners. The effect of such a policy is illustrated by the following diagram:



In the traditional school we would probably describe the progress made by the students above by such remarks as, "Student 'B' made considerable progress, but it wasn't enough to pass the course; he just had too far to go," or "Student 'D' did not accomplish much, but, then, he was good enough to pass." Yet actually, student "B" made more progress than did any other member of the group, while "D" made none at all.

From this diagram we see a basis for the assertion that "student failures are frequently teacher-made." Raise the accepted level of minimum achievement slightly and students "C" and "D" will also fail; or by lowering it a comparable amount, we can make it possible for students "B" and "F" to pass the course. It should be pointed out that no two teachers or groups of teachers would be likely to place the *line of minimum essentials for passing* at identical places, nor could any single teacher be expected to maintain such a mythical line at exactly the same level throughout successive semesters or years.

In contrast, the philosophy associated with democratic teaching is expressive of effort to consider growth standards in terms of individual aptitudes, interests, and needs. No fixed, inflexible, or

arbitrary levels of accomplishment are established for all students. Promotions are determined with respect to such factors as the following:

1. Amount of growth.
2. Factors affecting individual growth.
3. Action that will be most beneficial to the learner.
4. Fulfillment of co-operative agreements arrived at by students and their teacher.
5. Desirability of helping students maintain adjustment within a congenial peer-group.
6. Full consideration of the emotional factors involved.
7. Recognition that students accomplish more when they feel satisfied that promotional procedures are fair to them.
8. Effect of rating on morale, future placement, and attitude of companions in the group and other who may be affected.
9. Status in respect to external prevailing and prospective social and vocational needs.

Differentiation is logically made between standards of promotion for the issuance of credit and marks in such general courses as may be designed for citizenship preparation and required for all students and courses that stress specialization, as do many elective courses. In the first type, all students who fulfill the conditions of (1) attendance, (2) effort, and (3) exhibiting satisfactory social behavior, may be considered worthy to be rated as successful. In specialized courses, it becomes necessary to take into account, however, the degree of competence in special skills—knowledge and understanding—that the type of study involved may specifically require.

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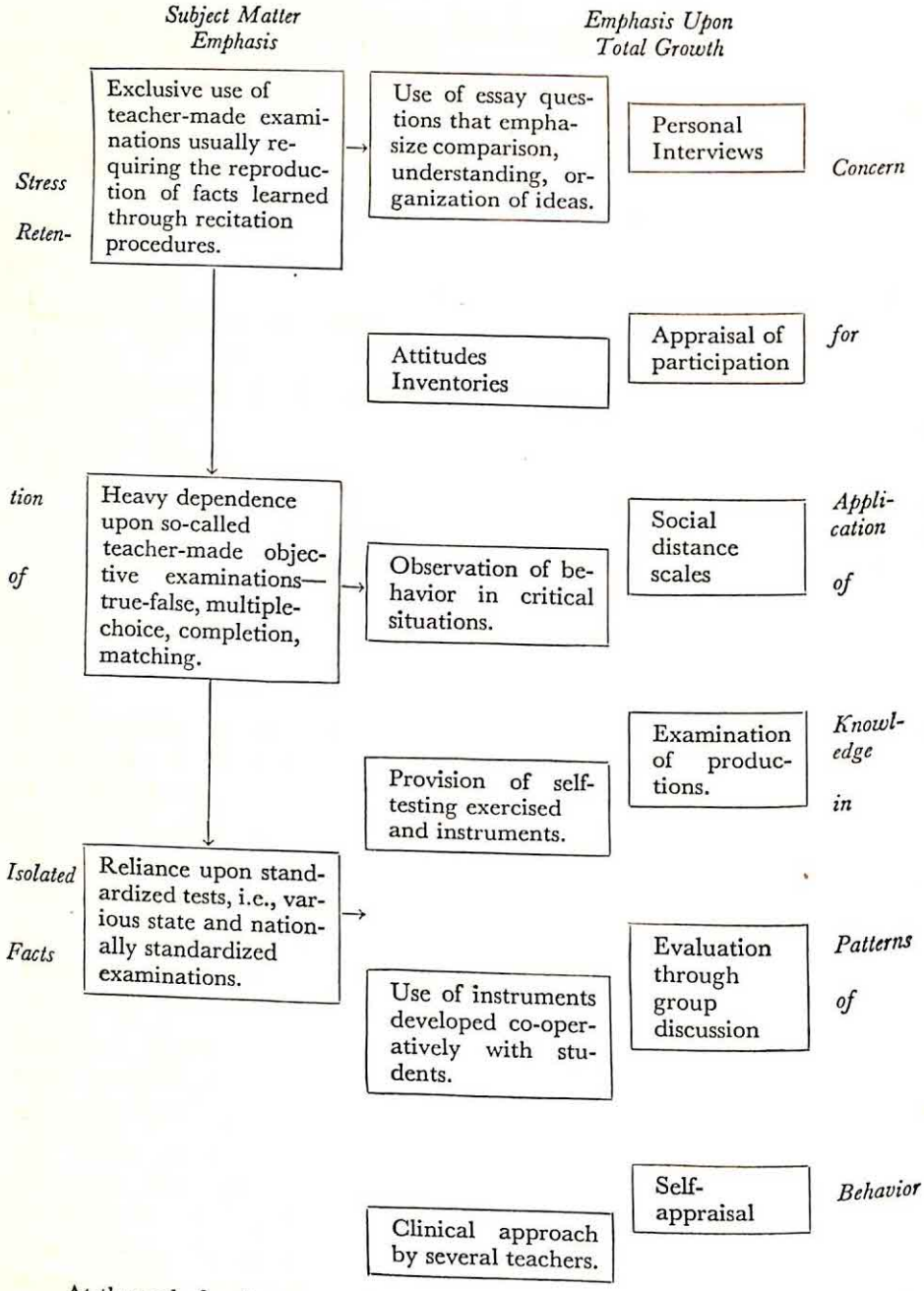
William L. Wrinkle, *Improving Marking and Reporting Practices.* New York: Rinehart and Company, Inc., 1947, 120 pp.

E. C. Bolmeier, "What's in a Mark?" *School Executive,* 62:25, May, 1943.

William H. Burton, *The Guidance of Learning Activities.* New York: D. Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1944, pp. 451–464.

Adolph A. Sandin, *Social and Emotional Adjustments of Regularly Promoted and Non-promoted Pupils.* New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1944, pp. 142.

Examinations. In developing methods of teaching compatible with the characteristics and ideals of our type of society, the needs of youth, and our best understanding of the psychology of learning, the progressive employment of different examination procedures may be characterized by the chart on page 426:



At the end of units to determine marks. → As a continuing, integral aspect of learning experiences to diagnose needs, to identify trends, to develop skill in self-evaluation. Less emphasis placed upon written or formal examinations or upon limited evidence. Skilled systematic observation plays an important role.

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James L. Mursell, *Successful Teaching*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1946, pp. 262–280.

Thomas M. Risk, *Principles and Practices of Teaching in Secondary Schools* (Second edition). New York: American Book Company, 1941, pp. 617–651.

Harl R. Douglass and Hubert H. Mills, *Teaching in High School*. New York: The Ronald Press, 1948, pp. 411–465.

J. Paul Leonard and Alvin C. Eurich, and Others, *An Evaluation of Modern Education*. New York: D. Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1942, 299 pp.

Assigning marks and reporting progress. In the past marks have been used extensively as:

1. A major source of motivation.
2. Rewards for compliance with assignments and regulations.
3. A means of determining recommendations for college.
4. A basis for selection of honor students.
5. The major means of conveying information about student progress in school to parents.

Since the primary function of marks for these purposes is that of differentiating between students, those systems of marking that make possible the finest discriminations have found favor among secondary school teachers. In terms of this purpose, numerical marks, i.e., "75," "82," "91," "99," can be defended as superior to letter grades—"A," "C," or "E"—even with the addition to the latter of various differentiating "pluses" and "minuses."

It is now coming to be recognized, however, that the only justifiable function of marks and progress reports is to convey an accurate and complete picture of growth. When emphasis is placed upon completeness as well as accuracy, when our purpose is *to inform* rather than *to distinguish between*, we gain an entirely different concept of values with respect to marking and reporting systems. In order to *inform*, marks and progress reports must consist of more than nebulous symbols designed to indicate fine degrees of progress toward perfection that may be interpreted differently by many people. They must, instead, provide a means of showing total growth—growth in terms of status at a given moment and with respect to the patterns of maturation of which such a single description or analysis of growth is only a part.

For this broad purpose we may classify systems of reporting progress in terms of their usefulness and value somewhat as follows:

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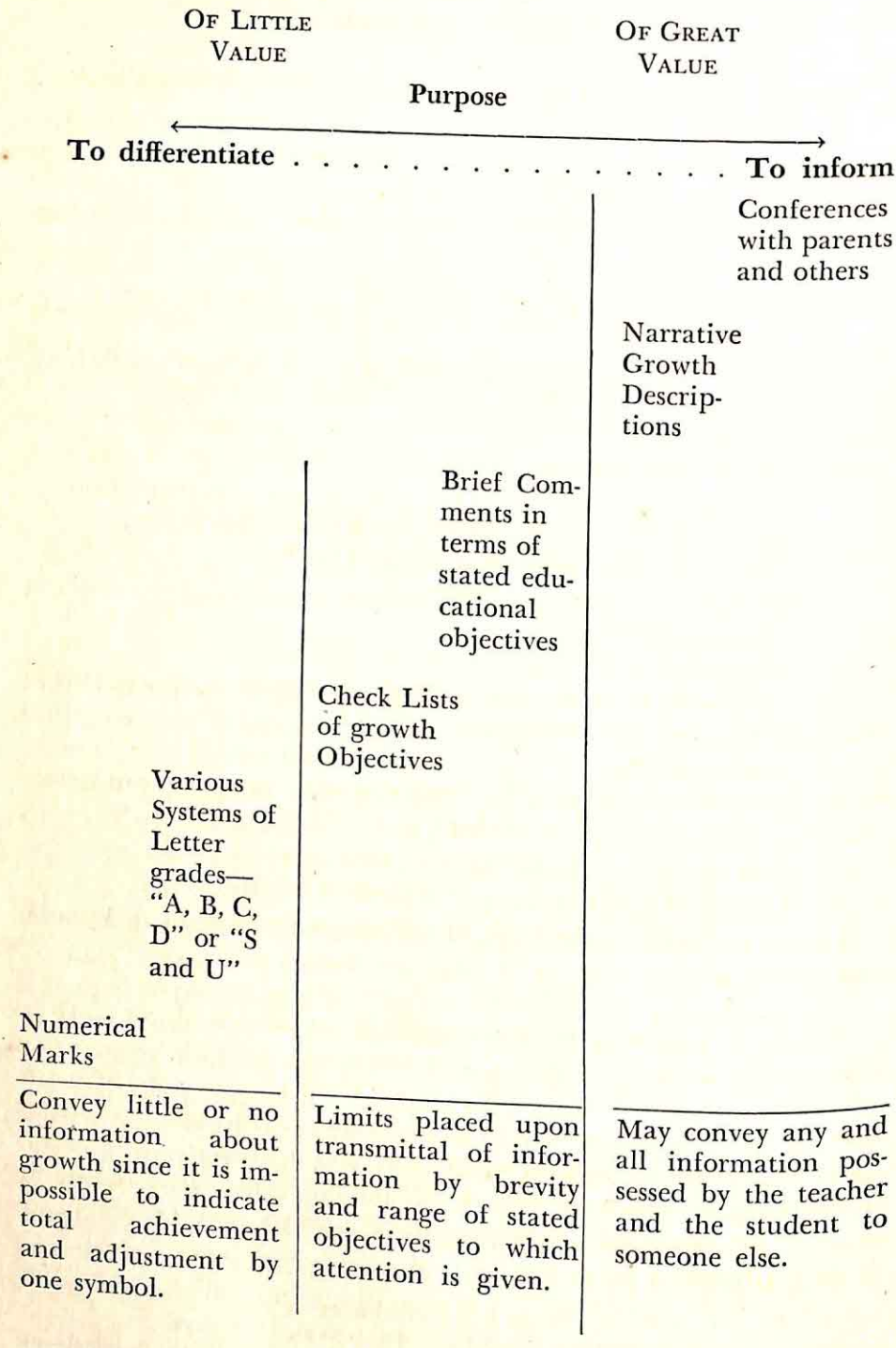

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William L. Wrinkle, *Improving Marking and Reporting Practices.* New York: Rinehart and Company, Inc., 1947, 120 pp.

Ruth Strang, *Reporting to Parents.* New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1947, 105 pp.

Record keeping. The nature of growth records maintained within a school will be determined by the conception of the function they are to serve. When their purpose is to preserve a picture as complete as possible of the growth and adjustments made by students in the secondary school, records will necessarily include more information than the traditional notations of courses taken, marks assigned, and attendance.

The trend in many schools is toward keeping rather complete records of the symptoms and evidences of growth of individual students. Since such records actually represent accumulations of facts, reports, anecdotes, and test results, they have come to be called "cumulative records." Normally this type of record includes:

1. Anecdotal reports of teacher-student conferences.
2. Health information and progress charts.
3. Samples of student productions.
4. Test records.
5. Information relative to home background.
6. Narrative accounts of significant experiences written by teachers, parents, and students.
7. Work records.
8. Indications relative to developing interests, vocational choices, personality development.
9. Descriptions of adjustmental problems.
10. Record of participation in student activities.
11. Socio-gram recordings of adjustments within particular peer-groups.

Teachers who seek to know and understand students both as individuals and as members of groups and who are aware that "behavior is caused" will discover value in the practice of maintaining a comprehensive record of significant growth symptoms. Only by consistent maintenance and application of truly representative data gathered over a period of years can a reputable level of professional objectivity in diagnosis and treatment of growth problems be achieved.

Selected References

Ruth Strang, *Reporting to Parents.* New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1947, 105 pp.
Eugenie A. Leonard and Anthony C. Tucker, *The Individual Inventory in*

Guidance Programs in Secondary Schools, Washington, D. C.: The United States Office of Education, 1941, pp. 60.

J. G. Umstattd, *Secondary School Teaching.* New York: Ginn and Company (New edition), 1944, pp. 53–76.

Discipline

A most important asset for success in teaching has been and continues to be ability to maintain "good discipline." As applied in early colonial schools this meant that the schoolmaster, in addition to being able to out-spell and out-translate his pupils, had to possess the physical strength and ability to "thrash" any student who failed to submit to instructions or to master his lessons. Although it is possible to find in today's secondary schools remnants of this despotic approach to pupil control, for the most part our concepts of discipline are changing even in the most backward situations. It is not to be concluded, however, that parents, school boards, administrators, or supervisors have become willing to accept lower standards of conduct than were formerly approved. The teacher who fails to "keep order" or to "maintain control" of his class is the first to be censored. The growing difference between discipline in modern schools and in those of the past may be found not so much in comparing the quality of behavior maintained as in the means employed to ensure good conduct.

The transition in the approach to and quality of discipline is in reality a trend:

From		**Toward**
Negative disciplinary procedures.		A positive approach to discipline.
	Based Upon	
External control.		Development of self-control.
	Involving	
Forcing conformity to standards set by adults.		Helping students agree upon and voluntarily accept necessary regulations.
	Growing From	
Assumption that all students have to be "bent" to the will of adults in order that they		Recognition that adolescents respond best to the values, conduct patterns, and mores of

From (*continued*)	Toward (*continued*)
may learn appropriate behavior, and that strong disciplinary procedures in some mysterious way strengthen character.	their peer-groups, and that adolescents strive, above all else, to establish freedom from adult control and direction.
The practice of striving to keep growing youth in a stage of infantilism is necessary and justified.	The desire of youth for growth toward independence can be used to direct it toward constructive purposes.
The doctrines of authority and paternalism are the best guides for the regulation of individual and group discipline.	The theory of democratic living can be followed as the most satisfactory guide to wholesome individual and group adjustment.
	Utilizing
Punishments or threat of punishments, i.e., detention halls, expulsion, low marks, humiliation, and infliction of physical pain.	Group rapport—helping members of a group "pull together" for the common good. Promoting healthy human relationships.
Rewards—to bribe acceptance of imposed regulations with marks, promotions, honor rolls, and special privileges such as eligibility for participation in extraclass activities.	Co-operative development of group agreements relative to the quality of group life necessary and desirable.
	Study and counseling of individual students who need help in adjusting to group life.
	Opportunities to help students find satisfactions in activity related to their own objectives and in wholesome relations within a congenial peer-group.
	Resulting Atmospheres
	Acceptance—free from tensions.
Tensions—students fear the teacher and frequently distrust each other.	
Agressiveness—stronger students strive to "pass the buck" to those less fortunate. The au-	Students and the teacher learn to co-operate and to trust each other's motives. Varying forms

From (*continued*)	**Toward** (*continued*)
thority of the teacher is duplicated in relationships between students.	of behavior are accepted as worthy of respect and freedom from ridicule even if eccentric and unpopular. Mutual respect and co-operativeness are encouraged. Students try to help each other.
Submissiveness—weaker and more agreeable students seek to avoid conflict by adhering strictly to regulations even though they may not understand or agree with them.	Acceptance of responsibility—all members of the group share in formulating and directing group policy. Individuals recognize the effect upon others of their own personal acts.
Conflict between students and teacher. Anything goes against the major source of oppression—the teacher.	Friendship—between teacher and students and among students.
	Work Habits
Constant under teacher direction but lacking in individual initiative and inspiration.	Growing continuously as students gain satisfactions from self-motivated, self-directed actions.
Extremely low in absence of teacher. Most students work only when compelled to do so.	No noticeable change during absence of teacher.
Largely individualistic in character.	Characterized by individual inspiration, creativeness, and shared relationship and responsibilities.
	Teacher Activity
Establishing—perhaps in co-operation with other teachers—regulations governing student behavior.	Promoting healthy group relationships, shared respect, and co-operative planning and action.
Informing students of regulations with which they must abide. Seeking to persuade, trick, bribe, cajole students into accepting imposed regu-	Studying individual students—their needs, backgrounds, adjustmental problems, and helping to plan constructive behavior changes. Frequently

From (*continued*)	Toward (*continued*)
lations. Being alert to infractions of established regulations. Exhibiting a bold and forceful bearing.	such planning involves making changes in institutional form.
Deciding upon and administering punishments for failure to comply with rules.	Working co-operatively with groups in the study of purposes, values, and desired relationships. Involves, also, efforts to understand adult patterns of behavior and regulations established by adults.
	Providing security and acceptance for all members of the group.
Goals Sought	
Immediate compliance with super-imposed regulations. Such a goal is achieved initially. From the first meeting with a class group the teacher may, if he is sufficiently stern and foreboding and providing that he has at his command sufficient rewards and punishments, achieve perfect discipline which thenceforth will falter only when students are out of his presence.	Eventual development of habits of self-direction and self-discipline—a personal willingness to accept and abide by agreed-upon controls. In this case, the establishment of discipline is seen as a continuous process of growth rather than a state of acquiesence under force.
Freedom from concern for disciplinary matters by the teacher who endeavors to establish discipline at once and for all future necessities. This is considered the means of freeing the teacher for more important responsibilities.	Recognition of continuous responsibility for helping students adjust to their environment. The teacher sees no greater demands upon his energies and time than that of helping students learn to control their own behavior.
Breadth of Concern	
Limited to a single class group or to assigned responsibilities, such as hall duty, lunch room	All teachers seek to help students learn appropriate habits of conduct for all the situa-

From (*continued*)	Toward (*continued*)
responsibilities, playground supervision, direction of particular, extraclass activities.	tions in which they find themselves.
School accepts little or no responsibility for discipline of students after they leave the school grounds except when they do so under school sponsorship as on a field trip.	Efforts are made to affect transfer of habits of self-discipline established in a class group to other activities in the school, the halls and playing fields, and to adolescent life within the community.

How Evaluated	
A limited area of adjustment that is under the control of a teacher or of a group of teachers or by the school staff as a whole.	Total adjustment to a total environment in school, in the community, and in the home.
Emphasis is upon the immediate and observable. If a class group is quiet and orderly, the teacher is judged as a superior disciplinarian regardless of the methods used to produce such a situation, or of the resulting student maladjustments that may accompany such disciplinary actions.	Studies are made of adolescent conduct within the total community situation—in recreational programs, public theaters, social activities, extraclass groups, and about the school as well as within class groups. The basis for judgment is broad and inclusive.
Stress placed upon over obedience, display of courtesy, politeness, respect, orderliness, acceptance of regulations.	In terms of noticeable trends. The disciplinary program that promotes increasing self-awareness of personal responsibilities to others and growing habits of self-control is considered successful.
Individual behavior in isolated situations is a major concern.	Individual behavior in terms of total relationship to other members of the group.
Adult standards regardless of whether or not they are considered important to students.	Standards co-operatively formulated by the teacher and students that are acceptable to students in terms of behavior important to them.
Quietness and order for their own sake.	Conditions favorable to the tasks to be done.
The comfort and convenience of the teacher.	The comfort and convenience of the group.

Selected References

George V. Sheviakov and Fritz Redl, *Discipline for Today's Children and Youth.* Washington, D. C.: Department of Supervision and Curriculum Development, National Education Association, 1944, 64 pp.

A. S. Clayton, "Discipline and Obedience," *School and Society,* 64:85–86, August 3, 1946.

Norma E. Cutts and Nicholas Mosely, *Practical School Discipline.* Chicago: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1941, 324 pp.

Raleigh Schorling, *Student Teaching.* New York: McGraw-Hill, 1940, 329 pp.

Responsibilities Related to Teaching

Successful teaching requires assumption of numerous responsibilities as well as participation in many activities that are related to instruction. The teacher who is interested in little more than dispensing subject matter to formally organized classes does not usually win recognition as a valuable asset to his school. Increasingly, teachers are being asked to perform duties that, although related to teaching, actually represent additional assignments as far as direct classroom instruction is concerned. Teachers are expected to be sensitive to community life and to help with what has been aptly called the public relations program of the school. They are also expected to participate actively in professional organizations and their activities, in programs of in-service education, in curriculum development, and in the general policy-forming activities related to the educational program of the school.

Providing group guidance. Administrators of most school systems strive to employ teachers who are qualified by professional preparation and interests to participate effectively in programs of group guidance. Such responsibilities have long been associated with the home room or with class groups. More recently, in some school systems they have come to be organized as a fundamental aspect of core or general educational programs. Almost every teacher is faced with responsibility for group guidance on numerous occasions.

Frequently, instead of being utilized mainly for group guidance, the home-room period has degenerated into an interval for administrative activities such as taking attendance, making announcements, and selling tickets; or it has become a period for study; or it has become a "free" period before the beginning of *regular* class work. Such misuse often has resulted when teachers:

1. Were unsympathetic to the purposes and approach of guidance.
2. Resented having to do anything but teach established subjects.
3. Felt insecure if they did not have a textbook from which to teach.
4. Lacked understanding of procedures that are appropriate to group guidance.
5. Were not sufficiently acquainted with their students to become aware of the problems with which they needed help.
6. Adopted laissez-faire attitudes in situations in which no "real teaching" was to be done.
7. Were unable to control students in situations in which they could not hold over their heads the threat of failure, low grades, or other disciplinary action.

Under such conditions, it is easy to understand why home-room and other types of group guidance efforts frequently failed. The problem is one that is still with us. As long as it is necessary to deal with students in groups it will be necessary for provisions to be made to approach many of their more common problems through group techniques of guidance. It will continue to be impossible from a financial standpoint and undesirable in terms of social objectives to attempt to meet all guidance needs by means of individual counseling. Teachers who face this need squarely and undertake to prepare themselves either during preservice or in-service programs of professional education for group guidance responsibilities will continue to be urgently needed.

Selected References

Frank G. Davis (editor), *Pupil Personnel Service*. Scranton, Pennsylvania: The International Textbook Company, 1948, pp. 280–307, 430–461.
Ruth Strang, *Group Activities in College and Secondary Schools*. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1941, 361 pp.
Clifford E. Erickson and Marion C. Happ, *Guidance Practices at Work*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1946, 325 pp.

Home visitation. Maintaining close relationships between the home and the school is no new duty for the teacher. Frequently, however, teachers have fallen into the habit of attempting to perform this obligation through such organizations as the Parent-Teachers' Association, or other types of parent groups, or by inviting parents to visit the school. The weaknesses in depending

solely upon these resources, valuable as they are, may be summarized briefly as follows:

1. Many parents do not attend the meetings of regularly organized parent groups; those whom teachers most need to know are likely to be the ones who do not come to the school.
2. Often it is possible to gain only a superficial acquaintance with those who do attend parent meetings.
3. Parents' visits to the school may not serve to give an adequate picture of the home environment in which students live.

The urgent need to become thoroughly acquainted with the home backgrounds of students has led alert, well-informed educators to facilitate arrangements that make it practical for each teacher to visit the residences of the students in his home-room or core group. Frequently this is accomplished by relieving teachers who are undertaking the guidance of a new group of students from teaching responsibilities for several days at the beginning of a new school year or semester while such home visitations are being made. As an illustration, the city of Norfolk, Virginia, follows the practice of providing substitutes for junior high school home-room teachers during home visitations. Teachers who are inexperienced in the techniques of home visitations are supplied the services of a skilled visiting teacher who accompanies them on their initial visits. Inasmuch as home-room teachers remain with their groups throughout the junior high school period, each year a new group of teachers begins working with seventh-grade groups while other homeroom sponsors continue with their same groups. Eighth- and ninth-grade home-room teachers usually are already acquainted with the home backgrounds of most of their students and hence do not find it difficult to visit the homes of the relatively few students who are new to their groups.

With secondary schools organized as they are, it is seldom possible for teachers to become personally acquainted with the home backgrounds of every student they teach. When home-room or core teachers possess such firsthand acquaintance, however, and as information related to the home is recorded in school cumulative records, it becomes easy to obtain from the group guidance teacher or from school record files additional information that may be needed in order to gain a proper understanding of each student.

Probably the most important factor in home visitation is the attitude of the teacher concerning such visits and the use to be made of the information obtained. Teachers who are genuinely

interested in knowing and understanding the home backgrounds of students will search for ways to become acquainted with parents and to observe directly the environment in which they live.

Selected References

Frank G. Davis (editor), *Pupil Personnel Service,* Scranton, Pennsylvania: The International Textbook Company, 1948, pp. 362–364.

Kate V. Wofford, *Teaching in Small Schools.* New York: The Macmillan Company, 1947, pp. 369–388.

Leslie L. Chisholm, *Guiding Youth in the Secondary School.* New York: American Book Company, 1945, pp. 299–313.

Sponsoring extraclass activities. In most schools all teachers are called upon to sponsor one or more extraclass activities. This situation is likely to continue to be true, although efforts are being made to recognize such activities as a regular part of the school program worthy of being placed within the time schedule and treated as any other phase of the instructional load. Considerable effort is also being made to merge student activities with regular class experiences to the extent that they grow out of class projects rather than develop as separate and discrete activities.

It is unlikely, however, that all student needs and interests can be served within the framework of established courses. Consequently, it will probably continue to be both necessary and desirable to provide additional support and guidance for special student activities that can enrich the learning values supported by the school program.

Several major trends are in evidence relative to the sponsoring of extraclass activities:

1. It is coming to be recognized that instead of being "extracurricular" activities, such experiences are actually an important educational phase that is worthy of the same attention, assistance, and guidance as any other essential aspect of the school program.
2. Thinking of extraclass activities as an integral phase of the planned learning program stimulates increased effort to assure that they contribute effectively to the learner's growth and development and that they are consistent with the goals and purposes of democratic society.
3. Teachers are coming to see that a laissez-faire approach to sponsorship of extraclass activities is inconsistent with the learner's needs for directed activity in meaningful democratic experiences. It is becoming recognized that such activities afford excellent opportunity to experiment with techniques of teacher-student shar-

ing and the self-direction of group dynamics. A means is thus supplied to evolve methods the general adoption of which will result in improvement for the total learning process and the *ideal* society it is the principal mission of those who guide education to attempt to build.

4. With such a purpose there is steady movement toward including the sponsorship of extraclass activities as a respectable function among other regular professional assignments.

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J. Lloyd Trump, *High School Extracurricular Activities, Their Management in Public High Schools of the North Central Association*. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1944, 209 pp.

Harry C. McKown, *Extracurricular Activities*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1948, 734 pp.

H. H. Giles, *Teacher-Pupil Planning*. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1941, pp. 3–17, 334–341, 342–347.

Supervision of study halls. In spite of trends toward supervised study and the development of laboratory experiences in secondary schools numerous teachers are called upon to supervise study halls. Distasteful as this task may be to many, there are steps that can be taken to relieve its boredom. The most promising approach lies in the direction of co-operative planning between the teacher and members of a study hall group to develop self-government by students. Such a procedure relieves the teacher from "police" duty and develops a situation in which students work together in agreeing upon the type of activity they desire to carry on during their study time. It encourages development of group rapport in an otherwise highly artificial situation and provides an opportunity for students of different class groups to gain experiences in working together with critical regard for the needs and purposes of every member of the larger group.

Through co-operative procedures, opportunities may be found, even in a study hall situation, to help students advance toward the goals of self-direction, independence, group acceptance of responsibility, and the development of willingness to abide by decisions that have been agreed upon. This procedure permits the teacher to exercise the function of guide rather than that of disciplinarian. For both students and teacher, such an approach contributes to the development of an atmosphere of friendliness, shared responsibility, and one free from tension—all of which contribute to the development of an environment in which learning more readily takes place.

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James L. Mursell, *Successful Teaching*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1946, pp. 21–43.

William H. Burton, *The Guidance of Learning Activities*. New York: D. Appleton-Century-Crofts Company, Inc., 1944, pp. 325–350.

Harl R. Douglass and Hubert H. Mills, *Teaching in High School*. New York: The Ronald Press, 1948, pp. 518–520.

Participation in community life. Teachers always have participated actively in the life of the communities in which they taught. They have been called upon to teach Sunday school classes, to lead boy and girl scout groups, to serve in parent-teacher organizations, and in many other ways to help with the work of the community. Often, however, their participation has been restricted to performing noncontroversial services that needed doing but which contributed little to the actual improvement of community living. Citizens of many communities look unfavorably upon teachers who take active interest in problems that cut deeply into the crosscurrents of conflicting ideologies and personal interests.

It is encouraging that in recent years we have been able to observe the following trends:

1. Permitting teachers to participate in normal activities engaged in by other citizens—including politics, government, civic improvement, unions, community study, and similar matters.
2. According to teachers the same status, with corresponding freedom for personal living, that is considered appropriate for other community leaders.
3. Granting teachers freedom of choice with respect to community participation.

If teachers are to continue to maintain positions of leadership within the school and the community, if they are to be ideal representatives of and models for our American democracy, they must be accepted as full-fledged members of our society and treated with respect—economically, professionally and personally. Many lay citizens are now coming to realize that the future of democracy cannot wisely be entrusted to teachers who have become cynical and maladjusted due to overwork, underpay, worry, hardship, social restrictions, and denial of the right to share in the making of policies that materially affect them personally.

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Edward G. Olsen, *School and Community*. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1945, 422 pp.

J. G. Umstattd, *Secondary School Teaching*. New York: Ginn and Company (New edition), 1944, pp. 445–462.

Harl R. Douglass and Hubert H. Mills, *Teaching in High School.* New York: The Ronald Press, 1948, pp. 584–586.

Public relations. In reality, every teacher is a public relations agent for the school inasmuch as he directly influences the major couriers of information about the school to the community—the students he teaches. The way students feel about their school experiences is likely to be the way their parents feel. When students are happy, the community usually senses that good work is being done by the school.

In schools today, we can observe the following trends in public relations:

From	To
Developing dislike, disrespect, and resentment toward the school by the way in which students were treated. All can remember experiences in which they felt disgust for treatment received personally or by classmates. Fully half our youth fail to complete the senior high school and of those who graduate it has been estimated that about 60 to 70 per cent have experienced discouragement and unhappiness from being compelled to work at tasks not of their own choosing, tasks that were beyond their sphere of interest and unrelated to their personal objectives. Much of the lack of support for public schools today can be traced directly to the fact that under a policy of despotic treatment of students, young people have been taught to fear, resent, and distrust teachers and schools. Often they fail to recover from such feelings before becoming, themselves, the determiners of educational programs and expenditures—as citizens and school board members.	Present tendencies toward helping all students to achieve acceptance, security, happiness and success in school tend to develop in young people respect and friendship for teachers and favorable attitudes toward educational institutions. These impressions students readily convey to their parents, relatives, and friends. Helping all young people to remain in school and to enjoy their experiences there; providing curricular experiences adapted to their needs, interests, and future plans; and permitting them to share co-operatively in the development of their learning experiences and in the actual operation of the school is thought to be the best public relations policy schools can adopt.

At one time school administrators and supervisors felt that it was their particular responsibility to represent the school not only in presenting matters to the board of education but by membership in service clubs, by appearing before community groups, and by making public addresses about education and related topics. Alert superintendents, principals, and supervisors are coming to recognize, however, that the person closest to a problem or phase of the educational program frequently is the one best able to interpret it to the community. As a result, it is not unusual now for teachers to be invited to meetings of the board of education and of other civic bodies to describe and discuss aspects of the educational program of the school. Increasingly, teachers are sharing with administrators and supervisors the responsibility for speeches, radio appearances, and other types of contact between the school and the community.

Selected References

Benjamin Fine, *Educational Publicity*. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1943, pp. 320.

Harold C. Hand, *What People Think About Their Schools*. Yonkers-on-Hudson 5, New York: World Book Company, 1948, 219 pp.

Edward G. Olsen, *School and Community*. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1945, pp. 335–345.

Sharing Responsibilities in Formulating School Policy. Effort to democratize school administration has led to recognition of the teacher's right and responsibility to participate in the formulation of educational policies that directly or indirectly affect him or the students he teaches. A dual responsibility of the school administrator and of the teacher is shown below:

Responsibility of the Administrator	Responsibility of the Teacher
To make every reasonable effort to insure all teachers the right and privilege of participating in the formulation and evaluation of all school policies.	To accept wholeheartedly the franchise of participating cooperatively in the development of policies that affect either directly or indirectly his personal well-being and his relationship to the ideals and purposes that the school program has been organized to put into effect.
To make available to all teachers reliable information con-	To develop habits of keeping informed about school problems

cerning problems and according them the right to formulate and defend their opinions about them.

To delegate the execution of policies agreed upon co-operatively with teachers to members of the group who, by special training, aptitude, and temperament, are best qualified to do the task in behalf of the interests of the group. This procedure is contrasted distinctly with a political approach in which the administrator frequently accords responsibilities to personal friends or to members of a limited group of tried and trusted individuals.

and policies and of formulating opinions relative to appropriate courses of action.

To be willing to share in and permit delegation of responsibilities growing out of established policy to those best qualified to perform them. For teachers this represents a contrast to the policy of seniority frequently advocated by some teacher organizations.

With respect to professional responsibilities within a school faculty, the following principles are coming to characterize the relationships between administrators and teachers and among teachers in a democratic school.

The democratic teacher or school official:

1. Possesses an attitude that is expressive of faith in the dignity and worth of each individual with whom he works and shares responsibility for the successful operation of the school.

2. Believes in using intelligence rather than force in solving problems. He recognizes that no individual or group of individuals has a "corner" on intelligence and that intelligence should be given opportunity to become operative wherever it may be found.

3. Is concerned with the welfare of the group. He will subordinate his own personal ambitions and satisfactions, whenever necessary, in order that he may be of greater service to his group.

4. Believes in the strength of the common solution of group problems. He has faith in the studied decisions of a majority of members of the faculty and respect for the right of the minority to strive to become a majority.

5. Believes in freedom, equality of opportunity, and fraternity. Believing in fraternity, he is friendly to his fellow teachers. He respects the rights of others as he does his own.

6. Has a sincere regard for proper authority and regulations that have been created by the group for the good of the group.
7. Accepts his share of responsibilities willingly and is dependable in executing the responsibilities he has assumed.

Selected References

Department of Supervision and Directors of Instruction, *Leadership at Work*. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1943, 248 pp.
Harold Alberty, *Reorganizing the High-School Curriculum*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1947, pp. 421–443.
G. Robert Koopman, Alice Miel and Paul J. Misner, *Democracy in School Administration*. New York: D. Appleton-Century-Crofts Company, 1943, 330 pp.

Co-operative action in curriculum improvement. The trend toward co-operative curriculum development in many schools places increased responsibility upon all teachers for being informed about the purposes of secondary education in our democratic culture, for understanding the needs of youth, for keeping abreast of recent theories of learning, and for knowing ways to affect constructive changes in existing curricula. Perhaps the most significant aspect of this trend toward co-operative curriculum development is the skill and willingness required of each and every worker in a common effort to develop an educational program adapted to student and community needs.

In the field of curriculum development there is a trend toward placing the responsibility of planning in the hands of staff members, who work co-operatively. This method is supplanting the older and more rigid systems in which curriculum content was determined by textbook writers or else was placed in the hands of experts.

Participation in curriculum development or improvement involves such activities as teachers' meetings; workshops; summer study; committee work with teachers, students, and parents; research projects; building resource units; planned experimentation; visits; child study; follow-up studies; and evaluative procedures. The procedures of curriculum development are (a) agreement on a common philosophy; (b) examining the character of society; (c) studying the individual and his needs; and (d) recognizing the fundamental purposes of education. Equally important activities are (a) determining the effectiveness of existing educational programs; (b) reconstructing curriculum design; and (c) developing teaching methods compatible with the ends in view.

Selected References

Harold Alberty, *Reorganizing the High-School Curriculum*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1947, 458 pp.

Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, *Leadership at Work*. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1943, 248 pp.

Professional growth and relationships. More than ever before, emphasis is being placed upon the importance of continuing professional growth and the extension of professional relationships. It is agreed that pre-service programs of teacher education, whether four or five years in length, cannot accomplish the entire task of developing competent teachers. Completion of this important objective must be accomplished by programs of in-service education related to on-the-job experiences.

Trends with respect to in-service education include the following:

1. Conceiving supervision as assistance and guidance to teacher growth rather than as a process of inspection and evaluation.
2. Development of workshops during the school year and summer months.
3. Including in-service education in the teacher's regular program of work—during the school day or with extra pay for after-hours and summer study. Some school systems are employing teachers for an additional month in order that in-service education may be provided while school is not in session; others have adopted the practice of dismissing school periodically in order that teachers may study their problems together.
4. Development of co-operative programs of child study.
5. Devoting teachers' meetings to in-service education as well as to routing administrative problems.
6. Encouraging co-operative experimentation among teachers with the help of supervisors and administrators.
7. Conducting research related to educational problems.
8. Co-operative participation in curriculum reorganization.
9. Increased emphasis in summer school study upon problems related to specific school systems.
10. Co-operation between teachers in core or general education courses as well as in other educational experiences.
11. Expanding professional reading through provision of professional libraries in schools, the use of professional book clubs, and the exchange of periodicals devoted to professional problems.

Professional growth is furthered, also, by membership and participation in professional organizations. Increasingly, teachers are co-operating in such organizations as the following:

1. Local teachers' associations.
2. State and regional associations.
3. The National Education Association.
4. The National Catholic Education Association.
5. Associations for various subject areas, e.g., American Industrial Arts Association, National Council for the Social Studies; Science Teachers Association.
6. Department of Classroom Teachers, NEA.
7. The American Federation of Teachers.
8. Department of Supervision and Curriculum Development, NEA.
9. The National Vocational Guidance Association.
10. Association of Secondary School Teachers.
11. The Association of Junior Colleges.

Advantages in maintaining membership in such organizations may include (1) keeping abreast with educational developments by reading publications that usually are purchased with the yearly membership fee; (2) attendance at state, regional, and national meetings; (3) associating with others who have similar interests; (4) co-operative action for the improvement of education and teacher welfare; and (5) for some, service in committees and elective offices.

Selected References

Harl R. Douglass and Hubert H. Mills, *Teaching in High School.* New York: The Ronald Press, 1948, pp. 541–589.

Charles E. Prall and Leslie C. Cushman, *Teacher-Education in Service.* Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1944, 503 pp.

Concern for Some Important Issues

Teachers who desire to improve instruction by advancing the purposes of secondary education are directly concerned not only with the expression of such purposes but with the development of procedures to put them into effect. Of the more pressing issues, brief mention will be made of the following: providing for creativeness in our teaching; relating learning to problems of real life in our communities; using controversial issues to promote

		NATURE OF LEARNING ACTIVITY		
Learning of unmeaningful material —that understood only by the teacher.	Learning the known as directed by the teacher.	Rediscovery of the known.	Reinterpretation of the known.	Seeking the unknown.
		PROCESS		
Rote memorization.	Memorizing and remembering.	Elementary research and investigation with emphasis upon process.	Investigating and thinking —attempting to discover meaning.	Investigating, thinking, creating.
		PROCEDURE		
Teacher is aware that students do not understand meaning but feels that extreme external motivations are justifiable in order to force learning of basic truths.	Teacher directs logical step-by-step progress toward goals recognized by the teacher as important.	Co-operative sharing by students and the teacher in experimental, problem-solving activities. Freedom to vary procedures in achieving established goals.	Co-operative experimentation may lead to new interpretations of accepted ideas. Members of group free to draw differing perceptions and meanings from experiences—differences in acceptance are permitted.	Co-operative experimentation, projection of new hypotheses, and the expression of ideas, attitudes, understandings, and values in new ways. Emphasis is on the unique creations of the individual student rather than upon forced conformity to standard procedures and process patterns.
		ASSUMPTION		
Truth is constant and important enough that students should begin mastering it, even though they fail to understand its meaning and significance.	Truth is constant, representing that which the teacher knows and understands. Task is to give students most economical technique of mastering it.	Truth is constant, but each group should be entitled to the joy of discovering anew the permanent values, facts and relationships previously learned by others.	Truth may not always be constant to different individuals and under differing circumstances. Students should not only be free to rediscover; they should be privileged to develop new interpretations instead of accepting dogma.	Truth is variable with individuals and circumstances—it may therefore be altered and extended. Each individual should be permitted and encouraged to express in creative ways feelings, ideas, values, and appreciations that are uniquely his own.

growth; and contributing to the development of common learnings.

Providing for creativeness—self-discovery and expression. Teachers face the task of helping young people develop learning experiences that permit and encourage individual and group creativeness. Implied is the process of self-discovery and the freedom to express ideas, impulses, emotions, interests, attitudes, and acceptance of values within the framework of a sympathetic group environment.

When creative experiences are contrasted with other types of learning activities a picture is presented that resembles the analysis below.

Commonly we have thought of creativeness as something permitted and possible only after students have mastered the knowledge, techniques, and discipline of a field. A student who desires to paint pictures is expected to become acquainted with the work of the great artists and their techniques and peculiar characteristics before attempting to express on canvas any feeling that is peculiarly his own. For most students the task of mastering a field as a prerequisite to expression of individual creativeness is so extensive and involved that inclinations toward creativeness are often lost or forgotten before the task is completed. It is now realized, however, that expression must be given to creative impulses if inventive skill and inclination toward originality are to be developed.

Our traditional attitude toward creativeness in the secondary school is aptly illustrated in the following comparison of actual incidents drawn from secondary and elementary school music classes:

A senior high school class in music appreciation

Twenty pupils sat listening to members of the group make reports on the lives of famous composers. At the conclusion of each report the teacher made a few remarks about how each composer began writing music. At one point a student asked, "Why do we have to spend all this time reading about how other people composed music? Why

A kindergarten class in the same city

Youngsters with their teacher had finished painting the playhouse which they had constructed. When asked by the teacher what they would like to do in the five minutes before clean-up time, one child suggested, "Let's sing the song we made up yesterday about our playhouse." After all agreed to this proposal, the children gathered

couldn't we compose some ourselves?"

The teacher replied, "Before we can be creative, we must master the contributions of those who have gone before us. Let's work real hard on these assignments now, and who knows?—perhaps some day some member of this class will be able to compose a song."

Here we see a deliberate suppression of creative impulse in order to make students learn that which the teacher considers to be important as a basis for creativeness.

in a circle around the playhouse as they sang to a simple, lovely melody these words:

Oh, see our little playhouse,
All green and white and red;
Jackie made the table,
Jimmie made the bed.

Creative impulses are given expression through group activities. No one child composed the song—it was the result of a group experience.

The second major hindrance to developing creativeness is the concept that creative activity is appropriate only for such fields as art, music, and language arts. We are now coming to realize that the areas of science, mathematics, history, vocational trades, and business afford numerous opportunities to display creative impulses provided we are willing to accord to students the freedom to explore, to express, and to react in individual ways.

Selected References

Viktor Lowenfeld, *Creative and Mental Growth*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1947, 304 pp.

Hoyt L. Sherman, *Drawing by Seeing*. New York: Hinds, Hayden and Eldredge, 1947, 77 pp.

Harold P. Fawcett, *The Nature of Proof*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1938, 146 pp.

Relating learning to problems of community living—teaching for transfer. Recognition that transfer of habits, attitudes, values, and understandings does not result automatically from school experiences calls for emphasis to be placed upon teaching in ways that cause transfer to result. If formal educational experiences provided in school are to contribute to the improvement of the quality of life, prior attention must be given to:

1. Relating school experiences to community problems whenever possible.
2. Utilizing the community as a laboratory for school learning,

for research, try-out experiences, and for comparison between actual and artificial experience.

3. Evaluating school learning in terms of the quality of life in the community—both while students are in school and afterwards.

4. Improving the transition from childhood to full adult status.

5. Developing a unified co-operative approach within the community—enlisting the participation of institutions and individuals with respect to the provision of education for the young.

Selected References

Educational Policies Commission, *Learning the Ways of Democracy*. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association 1940, pp. 263–330.

Samuel Everett (Editor), *School and Community Meet*. New York: Hinds, Hayden and Eldredge, 1947, 49 pp.

William Heard Kilpatrick and William Van Til (Editors), *Intercultural Attitudes in the Making*. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1947, 246 pp.

Edward G. Olsen, *School and Community*. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1945, 422 pp.

Using controversial issues to promote growth. Disagreement exists, particularly among laymen, relative to the appropriateness of controversial issues as learning activities. Various positions related to this problem may be stated as follows:

1. The point of view that adolescent students are too young to be permitted to think and make up their minds concerning problems about which their elders disagree, that only the problems whose answers society has agreed upon should constitute the basis for school study.

2. The belief that consideration of controversial issues is acceptable provided that a particular or "right" side or position is favored. Alberty lists four types of issues that are frequently accorded this treatment by various groups.[5]

   a. The growing spirit of nationalism in the United States. Many groups, for example, will permit students to study about our relationships with the rest of the world as long as attitudes of suspicion or outright hatred toward certain nations are stressed and as long as emphasis is placed upon our maintaining national isolationism on such matters as the secrets of atomic energy, world trade, and international agreements.

[5] Harold B. Alberty, *Reorganizing the High-School Curriculum*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1947, p. 401.

b. Our economic system, including the ideal of private and free enterprise, governmental control and regulation of business and industry, corporations, labor problems, business ethics, and social security.
c. Questions related to biological evolution.
d. Problems involving racial and minority groups.

Such problems as these are frequently considered controversial by vested-interest groups only when their examination leads to efforts to consider both sides of the question.

3. Recognition that in a democratic society the school—in adhering to principles of sound logic and such supporting doctrines as free speech, free press, and religious freedom—is obligated to permit and encourage the study of controversial issues.

If the third position indicated above is accepted, responsibility must be assumed, first, for maintaining the right to use controversial issues to further growth; and secondly, for making certain that all issues are studied fairly, with consideration for any or all divergent points of view in the light of whatever evidence is available and in accord with respect for differing opinions and the possibility that unrevealed knowledge may modify current beliefs.

Selected References

Harold Alberty, *Reorganizing the High-School Curriculum*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1947, pp. 398–418.

National Council for the Social Studies, *Teaching Critical Thinking in the Social Studies*. Washington, D. C.: The Council, 1942, 40 pp.

Furthering common learning. All teachers are faced with the responsibility of helping students to achieve those common learnings necessary for effective living and participation in the activities of their society. This means that each of us must be sensitive to opportunities to help students develop social skills, values, attitudes, and habits that enhance democratic living.

Contributions to the common learnings of students may result either incidentally or directly as outcomes from the following and other types of learning experience:

1. Courses designed for specialization, terminal-vocational purposes.
2. Providing for the development of experiences designed to meet common needs through specially designed courses—usually called by such titles as "core," "general education," or "common learnings."

3. Furthering common learnings through student activities and work experiences.

Perhaps as important as any other factor in contributing to the development of common learnings will be (1) the understanding the learner gains of the nature of our society, the learning process, the needs of all youth, and the function of secondary education; (2) the teacher's attitude of acceptance of the responsibility for furthering common learnings; (3) the quality of the method of teaching employed; and (4) ability to work co-operatively with other teachers in developing a curriculum devoted to this purpose.

Selected References

Harold Alberty, *Reorganizing the High-School Curriculum*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1947, pp. 150–181.

Educational Policies Commission, *Education for All American Youth*. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1944, pp. 230–279.

Harold C. Hand, "The Case for the Common Learnings Course," *Science Education*, 32:5–11, February, 1948.

Some Critical Problems

To the beginner all problems seem critical. Many problems that cause bewilderment initially, however, will have been solved satisfactorily by other teachers and will soon yield to serious efforts. At the same time there are some problems related to teaching that many teachers have been unable to solve. The following examples of the latter type concern almost all teachers. This tabulation is not intended to be all-inclusive. It is anticipated that this list may be suggestive of types of problems that merit our individual and co-operative attack.

Teacher load. Four major factors contribute to the almost unbearable loads that secondary school teachers are expected to carry at the present time:

1. The number of different groups of students taught daily and weekly. Of all factors causing overload, this is the easiest to change. Simply by being willing to teach the same students in different subjects or through a problem approach to meeting student needs, we can make the transition from teaching different groups the same subject to teaching the same group several subjects, i.e., English, social studies, art, science, mathematics, and so on. By using an understanding of several subject areas we may work toward the solution of broad problems. (If students are

expected to learn several subjects at the same time, we can certainly develop competence for helping them in the process.)

2. *The large number of students assigned to each class.* The solution of this problem, admittedly a financial one to a considerable extent, awaits development of methods of teaching that demand smaller class groups. As long as we defend and employ mass methods of teaching—the lecture, recitation, and uniform laboratory procedures in which all do the same thing at the same time—there can be little argument against placing as many students in each class as can be crowded into a room.

3. *Responsibility for extraclass activities.* Many educators are coming to believe that the solution of this problem lies in the direction of:

a. Merging extraclass activities with the regular program of instruction; for example, it is difficult to justify the practice of a teacher of English sponsoring a dramatics or creative writing club in which students who study English seek expression of their creative impulses. These activities can be assimilated into the English class thereby reducing the teacher's load.
b. Recognizing the guidance of such activities as a respectable and justifiable part of the teacher's load.
c. Enlisting the aid of parents in sponsoring these activities, dances, parties, hobby clubs and the like.

4. *Community responsibility.* The most promising trend with respect to this source of overwork for teachers is toward:

a. Discontinuing the practice of serving as community "workhorses" who do work that others neglect or dislike.
b. Assuming community responsibilities commensurate with our interests and abilities and comparable to those accepted by doctors, lawyers, business men, and other community leaders.

Selected References

J. B. Edmonson, Joseph Roemer, and Francis L. Bacon, *The Administration of the Modern Secondary School.* New York: The Macmillan Co., 1941, pp. 112–116.

Harl R. Douglass, *Organization and Administration of Secondary Schools.* New York: Ginn and Company, Revised, 1945, 660 pp.

Vested interests in terms of subject-matter fields. A major obstacle to the development of methods of teaching and curricu-

lum programs adapted to the needs of youth in our society is the vested interest we assume and seek to perpetuate with respect to teaching specific subject fields. Although much has been said and written to persuade teachers that they should think of themselves as teachers of youth rather than of subjects, in many secondary schools teachers of different subject-matter departments are pitted against each other in the struggle for supremacy and—in terms of the point of view of vested interest—survival. Suspicion, jealousy, antagonism, and competition that prevent co-operative relationships are the end product. Unless teachers learn to place the interests of students above their own personal attachments to subject-matter fields, the development of truly democratic secondary schools adapted to the needs of youth and in accord with our best theories of learning, curriculum construction, and the characteristics of our society, cannot be strongly anticipated.

Selected References

Harold Alberty, *Reorganizing the High-School Curriculum*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1947, pp. 95–118.

J. J. DeBoer, (Editor) *The Subject Fields in General Education*. New York: D. Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1941, 319 pp.

Differentiation between curricular and the so-called "extracurricular" experiences. Student interests and needs cannot normally function as a basis for the development of learning experiences in school unless teachers are willing to unite those activities that grow spontaneously out of student interests with the curricular experiences to which they accord their support and respect and through which growth is appraised and rewarded. The preponderance of student activities outside of regular courses or class instruction suggests that the program of the typical school is not meeting student needs by means of the formalized curricular and instructional program.

Selected References

Harl R. Douglass and Hubert H. Mills, *Teaching in High School*. New York: The Ronald Press, 1948, pp. 487–491.

J. G. Umstattd, *Secondary School Teaching*. New York: Ginn and Company (New edition), 1944, pp. 107–133.

Undemocratic practices in administration and supervision. It is difficult to maintain democratic teaching procedures in a school system in which arbitrary practices prevail in administrative and

supervisory services. It is the rule rather than the exception to find administrators and supervisors who, because of such factors as insecurity, lack of understanding of the meaning and applications of democracy, and a basic distrust for their associates, resort to authoritarian direction of teaching methods as well as curricular offerings. Alert administrators and supervisors, however, are searching for ways of developing democratic procedures within school staffs. Teachers can help administrative officials who fear democratic procedures by demonstrating that they are capable of participating responsibly in co-operative efforts to improve educational programs.

Selected References

Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, *Leadership at Work*. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1943, pp. 27–138.

G. Robert Koopman, Alice Miel, and Paul J. Misner, *Democracy in School Administration*. New York: D. Appleton-Century-Crofts Company, 1943, 330 pp.

Failure of parents and teachers to understand the purposes of secondary education. Parents, as well as teachers, need help in order to realize what the school is attempting to do. Implied in the achievement of enlightenment for both parents and teachers is co-operative study directed toward the establishment of common understandings about educational procedures and purposes.

Selected References

Dinwiddie County Public Schools, *Handbook for Parents and Teachers*. Dinwiddie, Virginia: Dinwiddie County School Board, 1948, 71 pp.

Faculty of The University School, *The Philosophy and Purposes of The University School*. Columbus, Ohio: The Ohio State University, 1948, 12 pp.

Obtaining supervisory assistance. Occasionally, even today, one hears of beginning teachers who have been advised by experienced teachers to avoid school systems in which supervisors are employed. The present trend in the theory of supervision, like that in teaching, is toward a more democratic approach. Supervisors are coming to be looked upon, and to consider themselves, as *helping teachers* or co-ordinators. The techniques of guidance are increasingly employed in the field of supervision as this responsibility comes to be understood to be one of helping each teacher to achieve maximum growth in ability to work effectively with boys and girls as well as with parents and other teachers.

With such a transition taking place in supervision, teachers who are provided supervisory services receive benefits others may not enjoy. They have help with their problems, are able to take advantage of programs of in-service education made possible under the co-ordination of the supervisor, and are able to receive assistance in many other ways in their own personal and professional growth. The problem now is becoming one of finding employment in a school system in which supervision is available. This may be difficult for some time to come since antagonistic attitudes toward supervision of the autocratic variety still linger so strongly in many school systems that administrators are fearful of attempting to provide such service for teachers. Much can be done to encourage the provision of supervision if teachers make it known that they prefer to work in situations in which communities are sufficiently interested in their professional growth to provide supervisory services.

Selected References

Inga Olla Helseth and Lindley J. Stiles, *Supervision as Guidance*. Williamsburg, Virginia: The Virginia Gazette Press (The Authors), 1946, 79 pp.

Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, *Leadership at Work*. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1943, 248 pp.

G. Robert Koopman, Alice Miel, and Paul J. Misner, *Democracy in School Administration*. New York: D. Appleton-Century-Crofts Company, 1943, 330 pp.

Transition from pre-service to in-service status. Many teachers have gone forth bravely and enthusiastically from college programs of pre-service training into teaching only to return a year or so later, disillusioned, discouraged, cynical, and condemning educational theorists who do not understand "the way things are and have to be." One beginning teacher told of being informed during the first day of school by his principal, "If you can forget that theory and nonsense they have been teaching you for four years about democracy and the needs of the child and come to realize that you have to be tough with high school kids and teach them what they need to know, you have a chance of getting along all right."

Much needs to be done to help those who are interested in better ways of teaching to keep their hopes alive throughout the critical "sink or swim" adjustment period through which all pass during their early efforts to instruct youth. Trends in improving the transition from pre-service to in-service status include:

1. Provision by training institutions of assistance for beginning teachers during their first year or two in order to help them make adjustments to full-time teaching responsibilities and to a particular school system.

2. Development of internship as a post-student-teaching experience during the fifth year as a means of helping beginners learn gradually to assume responsibilities of full-time teaching. Interns usually teach approximately one-half load and devote the remainder of their time to further related study. Provision for sympathetic supervision is an important aspect of internship programs.

3. Arrangement by school systems of orientation experiences, supervisory guidance, reduced loads, and help from more experienced teachers as a means of furthering initial adjustment.

4. Maintenance by beginning teachers of close contact with their training institutions, or with nearby colleges that prepare teachers, for the purpose of obtaining needed help.

Selected References

J. G. Umstattd, *Secondary School Teaching*. New York: Ginn and Company (New edition) 1944, pp. 463–484.

Charles E. Prall and Leslie C. Cushman, *Teacher-Education in Service*. Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1944, 503 pp.

Teacher welfare. Certain factors that directly affect the quality of teaching provided for youth are related to the teacher's own personal and professional welfare.

1. Salary. Public concern for improving salaries to the point where they will enable teachers to remain in the profession has resulted in salary adjustments in most schools. Salary increases, however, have failed to keep pace with living costs and with salary increments granted to workers in other fields. As compared with other professions, the earning power of teachers has been losing ground. There is a tendency to grant additional pay for dependents.

2. Tenure. As compared with other types of employment, tenure continues to be excellent. Tenure laws, as is to be expected, favor somewhat the less competent individuals.

3. Retirement. Most states have state retirement plans. There is growing interest in working out a nationwide program for the transfer of accumulated benefits from one state to another, thus making interstate change of position possible without loss of annuity accumulated from years of service.

4. Freedom to live in accordance with personal value codes. Increasingly, the freedom to live one's own life in terms of personal values is being achieved. It is becoming more rare for teachers to be expected to adhere to standards apart from those of other adults.

5. Freedom to belong to professional organizations. In many schools teachers are free to hold membership in such organizations as the American Federation of Teachers or the National Education Association. It must be admitted, however, that in some places school boards and administrators may try to influence and control such memberships.

6. Living conditions. Apparently the days when the school board told the teacher where to rent a room or an apartment are gone—at least for the duration of the housing shortage. Teachers must now find their own living accommodations except in a few areas where special provision has been made for their housing needs.

7. Recreational opportunities. Very few communities today attempt to restrict the recreational activities of teachers. Overwork is the greatest limiting factor in maintaining healthful habits of recreation.

8. Social life. There still exists a tendency for teachers to engage in social activities with other teachers—either from personal preference or because of community attitudes. Some mental hygienists who have studied the personal-social adjustments of teachers consider this to be a detrimental practice.

Selected References

G. C. Haig (Dan Stiles), *High Schools for Tomorrow.* New York: Harper and Brothers, 1946, pp. 173–185.

Harl R. Douglass and Hubert H. Mills, *Teaching in High School.* New York: The Ronald Press, 1948, pp. 568–590.

Summary

Certain aspects that relate directly to teaching procedures determine the over-all quality of method. In developing patterns of teaching compatible with the purposes of education in a democratic society, it is necessary to give careful and thoughtful consideration to the relationship between those procedures and responsibilities common to teaching in all subject areas and to each level of the secondary school.

In planning, organizing, and carrying out the teaching process,

varied media are used that include books and other printed materials; audio-visual aids; community resources; basic tools of communication in all areas and at all levels of the secondary school; and provision for regulating social behavior.

Various responsibilities related to teaching include supervising study halls, providing group guidance, serving as public relations agents, and participating with other teachers and officials in improving the school's program.

Major concerns that face all teachers include providing for creativeness, i.e., for self-discovery and originality of expression; relating learning to problems of community living; using controversial issues to promote growth; and furthering common learnings.

Several critical problems confront all teachers. These include factors that bear directly upon the quality of instruction: teaching load, vested interests in terms of subject-matter fields, differentiation between curricular and extracurricular learning, undemocratic practices in administration and supervision, and the failure of parents and teachers to understand the purposes of secondary education. Steps need to be taken to help beginning teachers facilitate transition from pre-service to in-service professional status. Current trends related to such factors as salary, tenure, retirement, personal and professional freedom, quality of community life, and recreational and social satisfactions enjoyed by teachers suggest steps teachers themselves may take to contribute to the solution of such problems.

Related Experiences

1. If available in your own institution or in the film library of your State Department of Education or from rental film libraries to which you have access, arrange for a showing of the following films:

Bring the World to the Classroom (22 minutes: sound). Distributed by Encyclopedia Britannica Films, Wilmette, Illinois. Demonstrates how the sound film facilitates learning by surmounting the obstacles of distance, seeing, hearing, season restrictions, verbalism, abstractions, inadequate equipment, hazards, and variations in intelligence.

Teaching with Sound Film (14 minutes: sound). Distributed by Encyclopedia Britannica Films, Wilmette, Illinois. Based upon research and experimentation, this picture depicts methods of using sound film in the classroom. Units of instruction at the intermediate, junior, and senior high levels are shown.

Using the Classroom Film (22 minutes: sound). Distributed by Encyclopedia Britannica Films, Wilmette, Illinois. Demonstrates an approved procedure for teaching with motion pictures.

Assignment for Tomorrow (30 minutes: sound). Distributed by the National Education Association, Washington, D. C. A documentary film illustrating the place and importance of the teacher in American life.

2. Discuss with other members of your group the nature of the aspects of teaching that were incorporated into the teaching methods used by your teachers in secondary school.

3. Arrange for members of your group to visit nearby secondary schools in order to (1) find examples of trends toward democratic procedures such as described in relation to organizing, making assignments, supervising study, discipline, the use of teaching resources; (2) discover the extent to which the teachers observed make use of a variety of printed materials, audio-visual aids, community resources; and (3) study techniques employed by secondary school teachers to develop the tools of communication.

4. Study the procedures followed in appraising, recording, and reporting student progress in your own institution's laboratory school or in the public schools in which student teaching is conducted in your area. Compare your findings with the suggested classification.

5. Plan to visit the home of a high school student for the purpose of studying his home background. Keep in mind that you wish to obtain the co-operation of parents in understanding the growth and development of the youth being studied. Before making the home visit work out with your fellow prospective teachers and your instructor what you consider to be appropriate procedures for home visitation.

6. Plan visitations for various members of your group in order that the following activities may be observed and reported to your teacher education group: extraclass activities, group guidance, supervised study, and supervision of study halls. Determine to what extent the examples observed are in agreement with the trends indicated in this chapter.

7. Interview experienced teachers in order to learn (1) the extent to which they feel restricted in their personal and professional life; (2) the professional organizations to which they belong; and (3) the factors that prevent them from making their best contribution to the growth of young people. Compare your findings with those of other members of your group.

8. See if you can find in nearby schools examples of the use of controversial issues to promote growth.

9. Discover the nature of conditions related to teacher welfare in schools with which you are acquainted. Perhaps you will wish to write to the superintendent of the public school system you attended or the president of the junior college from which you graduated to ask such

questions as, (a) What is the present salary scale for teachers with the A.B. and M.A. degrees and with respect to number of years of service? (b) What tenure provisions prevail? (c) What is the nature of the retirement program made available to teachers? (If all schools are members of a state retirement plan this information may be obtained from the State Superintendent of Public Instruction). (d) Are teachers free to hold membership in professional organizations of their choice, including the American Federation of Teachers, The National Education Association, and others? (e) What community restrictions are placed upon the life of teachers?

Compare your findings with those of your classmates.

Suggested Readings

ALBERTY, HAROLD, *Reorganizing the High-School Curriculum*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1947, 458 pp.

BLAIR, GLENN MYERS, *Diagnostic and Remedial Teaching in Secondary Schools*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1946, 422 pp.

BURTON, WILLIAM H., *The Guidance of Learning Activities*. New York: D. Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1944, 601 pp.

CHISHOLM, LESLIE L., *Guiding Youth in the Secondary School*. New York: American Book Company, 1945, 433 pp.

Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, *Leadership at Work*. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1943, 248 pp.

DOUGLASS, HARL R. AND MILLS, HUBERT H., *Teaching in High School*. New York: The Ronald Press, 1948, 627 pp.

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MURSELL, JAMES L., *Successful Teaching*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1946, 338 pp.

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RISK, THOMAS M., *Principles and Practices of Teaching in Secondary Schools* (Second edition). New York: American Book Company, 1947, 728 pp.

STRANG, RUTH, *Reporting to Parents*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1947, 105 pp.

UMSTATTD, J. G., *Secondary School Teaching*. Boston: Ginn and Company (New edition), 1944, 488 pp.

WRINKLE, WILLIAM L., *Improving Marking and Reporting Practices*. New York: Rinehart and Company, Inc., 1947, 120 pp.

Part 4

TEACHING GROWING YOUTH

Chapter 17

TEACHING THE EARLY ADOLESCENT

In what ways does level of maturity influence the nature of teaching? . . . To what extent does growth during early adolescence cause young people to develop tensions and fears? . . . What are the symptoms of initial growth toward independence during early adolescence? . . . Characterize the nature of problems faced by most young people at this time. . . . To what extent do junior high school pupils develop fears of the future? . . . In what ways do students of this age face problems of finding security within peer-groups? . . . What responsibilities should we assume for helping students to make vocational choices during early adolescence? . . . What steps can be followed in stimulating the expansion of interests? . . . What can we do to make it possible for early adolescents to practice self-direction? . . . In what ways may experiences in sharing be provided for early adolescents?

Achievement of social competency necessitates close adaptation of the methods of teaching to be used to the growth level of the learner. Development of social values and skills is a gradual process. At first, young people need opportunities for engaging easily in experiences in which sharing with others does not conflict too abruptly with their own personal needs and interests. Later, increased emphasis may be placed on adjusting individual goals in order that they may become readily identified with the purposes of the group.

During early adolescence young people normally begin to show evidence of growth in ability to assume responsibility for their own acts. They become more inclined, also, to accept the needs of groups as a basis for defining desirable activities. Such growth continues until the individual becomes capable of complete self-

direction, competent to regulate his own affairs, able to assist in community management and improvement, and able and willing to participate in shaping policies that affects man's life and happiness. Inasmuch as growth toward this ultimate broad scope is gradual, teaching needs to be adapted to the particular stage or level in the social growth sequence of the learner.

The degree to which young people are able to participate cooperatively in school experiences is determined largely by their level of maturation. Their development, so regarded, may be thought of as a product of previous experience that includes both physical and mental growth and emotional adjustment. At the time students reach the first division of the secondary school, the junior high school, many will not have attained a degree of maturity necessary to enable them to engage successfully as participants in such activities as those involved in purposing, planning, executing, and evaluating. Instruction should be so planned that responsibility is assumed for helping these young people to develop readiness for participation in democratic living.

Teaching adapted to the early adolescent will include giving assistance in maintaining group rapport as youth establish relationship with peer-groups and break established ties with adults. It will assist junior high school students to explore opportunities that are designed to help them discover interests, abilities, and long-term goals. And, perhaps more important than any other single aid it affords, it will stimulate development toward self-direction and self-discipline, which are major characteristics of independence. Such teaching will begin with each student where he is and will assist him to develop competence in the characteristics associated with citizenship as he progresses from one level of growth to another.

Helping the Early Adolescent to Know Himself

Junior high school students need help in learning to understand themselves. As they seek to realize who they are, what they are becoming, and why certain characteristics develop at certain times, they need to learn how to adjust to physical and emotional changes that are occurring rapidly and what to expect as natural and normal steps in their growth. Very few individuals who are now teaching or preparing to teach have had extensive guidance of this type during their own early adolescence. For this reason it

may be impractical for a teacher to rely upon his own personal experience as a guide for helping youth. It becomes necessary, therefore, for students of education to give special attention to adolescent development and to helping adolescents to understand and cope with their own problems. Implied is the development of a point of view that permits a natural wholesome attitude toward this problem as well as establishing teaching procedures that will contribute to meeting this need.

Helping youth understand physiological and emotional variations. The first understanding that the early adolescent needs is probably related to his physiological changes and their accompanying emotional reactions. The age at which most pupils complete the elementary school and enter the junior high school is the average age at which pubescence occurs. Some pupils arrive at puberty even earlier, whereas others may be considerably retarded in their physical development. Consequently, averages for the total population mean little in attempting to understand the growth pattern of a given individual.

Although a majority of young people advance normally from childhood to adolescence without serious maladjustment, the physiological and emotional changes that occur, at times so rapidly, are the basis for much worry and discomfort. For example, the development of breasts may be a reason for pride in some girls and embarrassment in others. The type of obesity that frequently occurs with both girls and boys may be another source of disturbance.

A carefully conducted study of the physical development of the same group of adolescents over a period of eight years made by H. E. Jones [1] offers an exceptional opportunity to gain a broader understanding of the physical developments that tend to disturb young people during this period of growth. The 93 boys and 83 girls included in this study were examined every six months by the same physician. In analyzing the results of this investigation, Stolz and Stolz [2] point out that 31 per cent of the boys and 41 per cent of the girls exhibited noticeable anxiety concerning physical factors. Types of physical characteristics that were the basis for disturbances in boys and girls were found as follows: [3]

[1] H. E. Jones, "The Adolescent Growth Study," *Journal of Consulting Psychology*, 3:157–59, 177–80, 1939.

[2] Herbert R. Stolz and Lois Meek Stolz, "Adolescent Problems Related to Somatic Variations," *Adolescence*. Chicago: National Society for the Study of Education, Forty-Third Yearbook, Part I, 1944, pp. 80–99.

[3] Stolz and Stolz, *op. cit.*, p. 86.

Physical Manifestations That Disturbed Boys	Number of Boys
Lack of size—particularly height	7
Fatness	7
Poor physique	4
Lack of muscular strength	4
Unusual facial features	4
Unusual development in the nipple area	4
Acne	3
Skin blemishes, scars	2
Bowed legs	2
Obvious scoliosis	2
Lack of shoulder breadth	1
Unusually small genitalia	1
Unusually large genitalia	1

Physical Manifestations That Disturbed Girls	Number of Girls
Tallness	7
Fatness	7
Facial features	5
General physical appearance	5
Tallness and heaviness	3
Smallness and heaviness	3
Eye glasses and strabismus	2
Thinness and small breasts	2
Late development	2
Acne	1
Hair	1
Tallness and thinness	1
Big legs	1
One short arm	1
Scar on face	1
Brace on back	1

It should be pointed out that the tabulation above represents the observable disturbances of these boys and girls. They perhaps represent a minimum figure inasmuch as many other individuals undoubtedly experience periods of concern that were not noticeable to the observer. The intensity of some of these disturbances can be understood by considering the feelings and fears of the four boys who were upset about what seemed to them abnormal developments in their breasts. As Stolz and Stolz point out: [4]

> Perhaps the syndrome of (sexually inappropriate) physical traits which is most apt to disturb the adolescent boy is the one in which a considerable increase of fat around the hips is combined with small

[4] Stolz and Stolz, *op. cit.*, p. 91.

external genitalia, scanty pubic hair, narrow shoulders, and an unusual development of subcutaneous tissue about the nipples. In such a case the feelings of sex-inappropriateness arises not merely from a lack of what is considered acceptable male development, but also from the superficial similarity of the whole pattern to that popularly associated with female development.

Since young people typically become concerned about variations in physical growth and emotional adjustments at different times, it is frequently unwise to attempt to provide information relative to such changes to groups of students at the same time. Boys and girls who are confronted with concerns relative to their growth may readily seek help; other youth who have not yet recognized similar problems may, if urged to consider them, exhibit only superficial curiosity or complete lack of interest. Much of the assistance that is given early adolescents in understanding physiological and emotional growth must be provided through individual guidance. It is possible, however, to develop a general understanding of these problems through group instruction, provided that care is taken to help students recognize the importance of their learning to understand themselves. Group discussions, preferably in small groups, talks by experienced physicians and nurses, films, and co-operative research by students are all methods of group instruction that have been found useful in this process.

If adolescents are helped to realize that most of the changes that take place during and following puberty are normal, even when they occur at different times for different individuals, and that they are necessary in the process of growth toward healthy adulthood, they will be spared much of the unrest that frequently characterizes this period of growth.

Urges toward independence that require explanation. During early adolescence almost all young people experience a strong desire to become independent—of parents, teachers, older brothers and sisters, and other individuals who exercise authority over them. Frequently conflicts involving values that are basic to adolescent youths and those who are concerned with their behavior result from such urges. Children who have previously been happy and secure within their home, church, school, and community environments may suddenly find themselves to be developing feelings that are expressive of resentment against familiar procedures, beliefs, companions, and other previously accepted sources of stability and control.

1. The revolt against parental control. Children who love their parents and who have always been obedient and congenial

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may suddenly find themselves, during early adolescence, feeling resentful and rebellious against parental control and assistance. Pre-adolescents usually accept direction from their parents and teachers without much resentment. Most children have been conditioned from infancy to "mind," to "do as told," to "obey," and to "respect their elders." They have found security in depending upon adults not only for the satisfaction of their wants but also for making significant decisions.

As young people reach adolescence they begin to assert themselves and to exhibit tendencies toward independent action. They become resentful of external control, even when such direction would serve them advantageously. Young people need help at this time to understand why they disagree with their parents about such things as dress, social habits, choice of vocation, schedule of daily chores, home responsibilities, religion, manners, choice of friends, movie-going, and radio-listening habits. They need to recognize these disagreements as evidences of their growing up and to learn to react to them moderately and without experiencing feelings of guilt because they disagree with those whom they love and respect.

Because young people in early adolescence are inclined to attempt to break away from parental domination, they are likely to think that parents are too strict, old-fashioned, lacking in understanding of youth, and difficult to get along with much of the time. They question the judgment of their parents and teachers about companions, health needs, educational plans, and in almost every other matter that is related to their own behavior. They desire freedom of action and freedom to make decisions in terms of their own interests and what they consider to be their own needs. At one time or another, almost every boy and girl experiences a reaction against his or her parents. One study [5] that reported the feelings of 2000 adolescent boys with respect to conflicts with their fathers and mothers and with other members of their families is summarized in Table I.

Intensity of such feelings of conflict among the boys included in this investigation is illustrated by the fact that more than half indicated that they experienced antagonism toward both their father and mother either *occasionally* or *frequently*. It is interesting to note, also, that such conflicts tended to increase with age throughout the adolescent period.

An illustration of the way in which an early adolescent may re-

[5] Urban H. Fleege, *Self-Revelation of the Adolescent Boy*. Milwaukee, Wis.: The Bruce Publishing Company, 1944, p. 68.

TABLE I

FREQUENCY WITH WHICH 2000 ADOLESCENT BOYS EXPERIENCE INTERNAL CONFLICTS RESULTING FROM REACTIONS WITH MEMBERS OF THE FAMILY

Experience conflict between feelings of antagonism and loyalty toward:	Frequently	Occasionally	Rarely	No answer or question was inapplicable
My father	25.9%	36.6%	29.3%	8.2%
My mother	20.0	33.2	42.6	4.2
Other members	25.0	37.6	32.7	4.7

(After Fleege)

veal antagonism toward parents is found in the following brief incident:

Ethel, thirteen years old, became upset because she didn't like the new dress purchased for her by her mother for her birthday present. She refused, however, to permit her mother to exchange the dress for one of Ethel's choosing when her mother offered to do so. "I might just as well wear this one. What difference does it make anyway? Someday I'll get a job and buy my own clothes," was her reply.

Incidents similar to this have been re-enacted numerous times within the experiences of those who work with boys and girls of this age. Ethel, probably without really understanding why she did so, was manifesting her desire to choose her own clothes; yet at the same time she revealed that she would prefer to wear the dress selected for her rather than face the responsibility of trying to choose a better one. No doubt, too, she felt some regret for having demonstrated a lack of appreciation for her mother's kindness.

2. *Freedom from domination by members of a peer-group.* Besides rebelling frequently against their parents and their teachers, young adolescents almost invariably develop a desire to act independently of others, even members of their own peer-groups. In many cases they have been dominated by older brothers and sisters or by playmates during their early childhood. Such domination is generally expressive of submission to stronger physical power, greater skill in valued activities, shrewdness, or special privileges possessed by certain members of the group. Studies of adjustment of early adolescents reveal that of the fears they experience, that of being "bullied" by other students ranks high on

the list.[6] Adjustment of youth during their junior high school years is characterized by a continuous generation of conflicts and alliances among members of peer-groups. Often students, while resenting domination from other boys and girls of their own age, show tendencies to display a similar type of behavior toward individuals whom they consider inferior to themselves.

3. Hero worship. Early adolescents often try to emulate adults whom they accept in the roles of ideals or "heroes." Individuals selected as ideals may be parents, friends, well-known public figures, or characters found in history or fiction. It is during this stage of development that many young people write letters to movie stars, athletic heroes, and other famous personages. They strive to mimic the habits, dress, walk, talk, gestures, and even the style of hair dress worn by those whom they admire. Such admiration, although it may lead to complete affectation in behavior, often serves as a means of abandoning childhood behavior patterns.

In general, personification of parents and teachers as ideals tends to decrease during progress through adolescence.[7] On the other hand the selection of historical and public characters as ideals tends to increase from ages nine through fourteen and fifteen and remain high throughout the period of late adolescence. The number of adolescent boys who name for their ideal or hero a famous athelete such as Bob Feller, Otto Graham, or Joe Louis, has been found to be almost three times as great as the number who designate their fathers in this capacity.[8]

Identification of an ideal person represents a step in the creation of an adult image of the self. As children begin trying to visualize the personality and character patterns they hope to establish as adults, they naturally turn to people whom they admire as a source of inspiration. At this time they need guidance frequently in understanding that the dream of becoming grown-up is a controlling factor that explains their behavior, their hero worship and their imitation of adults. It is important that such behavior be accepted and understood by both youth and adults; otherwise it may become a basis for ridicule, sarcasm, or unkind remarks. Much may be accomplished by developing learning experiences in school that permit students to capitalize upon this adolescent characteristic. It can be made to serve as a basis for studying history, literature, biography, science, art, music, and re-

[6] Urban H. Fleege, *op. cit.*, p. 310.
[7] Luella Cole and John J. B. Morgan, *Psychology of Childhood and Adolescence.* New York: Rinehart and Company, 1947, p. 379.
[8] Urban H. Fleege, *op. cit.*, p. 331.

ligion—in fact, almost any field in which there are important personages around whom learning experiences can be developed. It also provides a basis for the creative dramatization of character roles. Junior high school students particularly enjoy enacting the parts they visualize for their ideals and heroes.

4. Recurring dependence. Although young people strive during early adolescence to become independent, their behavior and adjustment are characterized by symptoms of recurring dependence. They are, for example, dependent upon their parents for the necessities of living—food, clothing, and shelter. Occasionally one finds a twelve- or thirteen-year-old child who is achieving independence in providing his own means of living, but generally junior high school youth depend upon parents, relatives, or other groups of adults in the community for the provision of such necessities. We find a condition, therefore, in which boys and girls who are striving to establish their independence must continue to rely upon their parents for some important conditions of happiness. This situation is illustrated by an experience of three junior high school boys that occurred as follows:

Ted, Sam, and Augie were absent from school during an afternoon late in April. Inquiry of their parents revealed that they had not gone home. When they did not return home that evening considerable concern was felt by both parents and school authorities. Anxiety was relieved, however, the following morning when the boys returned to their respective homes shortly after the time they anticipated the departure of their fathers for work. Augie explained their behavior to his mother as follows: "Mom, we're not kids anymore. We decided to get out on our own. We can make it too—but first we decided we had better come home and get some breakfast."

5. Emotional security. Early adolescents are also dependent upon adults for continuance of the emotional security for which they have relied so heavily upon their parents and other older people during childhood. All normal individuals feel the need for love and affection, acceptance, guidance, approval, encouragement, comfort during times of stress, and for close companionship. Children in normally happy homes enjoy the security of knowing that they belong to a stable institution, one which will protect them from the dangers of the world outside. They gain happiness from demonstrations of affection by their parents and brothers and sisters.

As children begin growing into adulthood it is natural for them to seek emotional security outside the home. In so doing they strive to break the emotional ties that bind them to their homes

and families. Yet, as they search for new emotional attachments during early adolescence, boys and girls often find occasions recurring on which they realize the need for returning to the security of former emotional relationships within their families.

Many young people develop conscious fears for the status of their home, particularly with respect to the quality of relationship that they find existing there. One youngster, for example, asked what was his greatest worry, answered, "My mother's health. I wouldn't know what we would do if she is ever taken away from us." [9]

Another said, "Fights between my father and mother. I try to figure out ways of keeping peace in the family." [10] These two boys obviously were confronted with a problem of helping to maintain emotional security within the home for others as well as for themselves.

Frequently, young people at this age face the "world" with a brave front only to return weeping to the comfort of their parents when disappointments are encountered. Or they may withstand their parents boldly while in their presence, then experience feelings of extreme insecurity when alone.

Those who plan and direct instruction have the responsibilty of helping youth to understand that most of the complicated and unusual emotional responses they experience accompany normal transitional stages from childhood to adult status. They need to be helped to understand that they should feel free to return to their parents without embarrassment or fear of being considered childish. When they are ill, in difficulty, or unhappy for any reason, when they face frustrations that they are unable to understand, when they meet strange and unfamiliar experiences; and when they feel isolated from their friends and other companions, youth need to be able to turn with confidence to parents and teachers for protection and sympathy. If for any reason they cannot find security within the home or at school, they are certain to be in serious need of guidance that will enable them to make adjustments in other ways.

6. Limitation of experience. Although young people are striving to establish themselves as individuals who are capable of providing self-direction for their own acts, they find that some decisions involve so many factors with which they are not familiar that they are unable to make them without assistance. As a conse-

[9] Urban H. Fleege, *op. cit.*, p. 312.
[10] *Ibid.*

quence they return for help to those upon whom they depended in childhood.

Frequently this period, with its characteristic emotional unrest, is one that is a source of much conflict between parents and their children as well as between teachers and their students inasmuch as adults often fail to realize the importance of permitting sufficient freedom for experimentation when attempting to evaluate the exploratory efforts of youth in gratification of their newly felt urge for personal freedom and independence. Quite naturally adults fear the consequences of too much freedom. They may, as a result, attempt to retain the prerogative of decision making in behalf of their children. Parents may, for example, seek to tell their son or daughter the exact time when evening affairs should end, and they may still undertake to choose their companions for them. Some parents may feel that they must choose their children's careers as well as their elective subjects and courses in junior and senior high school. At the same time young people may feel that they should decide for themselves what should be the limits of their own activities. Even when they attempt to make their own decisions, however, young people of the early junior high school years find that they repeatedly must turn to their parents, teachers, and other adults for help. When this happens it is important that the help be provided in such manner that it tends to further the child's growth toward independence rather than tending to force a continuance of childhood behavior patterns.

Much can be done to help young people understand their strivings to achieve a social orientation that permits self-direction, self-evaluation, and shared responsibility with their peers. Early adolescents can be helped, through a guidance approach, to interpret their feelings of desire to break the ties that bind them to parents, to "run away" from restraint, to refuse to take suggestions from others, and to break school and community regulations. With sympathetic help, boys and girls will learn to understand the struggle that goes on between desire for independence and need for reliance upon others.

Helping youth understand their problems. As youth reach puberty they face many new problems related to their growth toward full muturity. During childhood most action and behavior are directed by adults, and most problems are solved by adults. When early adolescence is reached young people find themselves confronted with a variety of problems that are peculiar to this

stage of their growth. In general, the type of problems faced at this time may be classed under three major categories: (1) problems growing out of changing value patterns; (2) problems related to relationships with each other; and (3) problems that grow out of the realization that it is necessary to choose a vocation and to prepare for it. Although many of the problems that first are confronted during early adolescence continue to require attention throughout middle and late adolescence, their initial effect upon young people is so critical that those of us who teach youth of this age need to understand their implications.

1. Problems growing out of changing value patterns. Prior to adolescence children receive their value patterns from their parents, the church, the school, and out of the mores that prevail within a given community. In order for society to survive it is necessary that it maintain a core of common ideals and loyalties that govern personal relationships. To these common ideals each individual must maintain a degree of integration that permits harmony of action and supplies meaning and direction to living. The perpetuation of particular value systems becomes the responsibility of such social institutions—the home, the school, the church, the community—which depend upon them. Commonly, younger children are taught to accept the value patterns of the adult society on the basis of "faith" in their worth. But as young people begin the struggle for independence they naturally ask questions in order both to satisfy their growing curiosity and to reach decisions for themselves.

Studies of the problems of conflict of values of early adolescents [11] reveal a genuine concern and confusion relative to such problems as religion, ethics, morality, right and wrong, and schemes of personal relationships. Fleege's extensive study of boys in Catholic schools revealed that 44 per cent experienced conflicts between moral teaching and popular ideas.[12] One of the boys included in the study expressed this problem as he saw it: "I'm in a dither about evolution, eternity, and predestination; it simply gets me down when I try to figure it out." [13] Landis quotes the following from a student paper illustrating further the conflict

[11] Newton Edwards, "The Adolescent in Technological Society," *Adolescence.* Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, Forty-Third Yearbook, Part I, National Society for the Study of Education, 1944, p. 194.
Urban H. Fleege, *Self-Revelation of the Adolescent Boy.* Milwaukee, Wis., The Bruce Publishing Company, 1945, pp. 154–155.
Paul H. Landis, *Adolescence and Youth.* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1945, pp. 183–198.

[12] Fleege, *op. cit.,* p. 317.

[13] *Ibid.,* p. 318.

that develops between religious teachings during childhood and the beginnings of rational inquiry during adolescence: [14]

> My family environment led me to recognize that certain meteorological factors caused rain. My religious beliefs cause me to believe that if the need of rain was felt in South Dakota and the people of a community faithfully prayed for rain, it would be forthcoming in spite of the meteorological conditions. Or rather I should say that God would arrange the meteorological conditions so that it would rain.

Another type of value pattern that causes problems for the early adolescent is that which is developed by groups of children to govern the social acceptance of others. These patterns grow up spontaneously whenever adolescent youth form groups. Moreno [15] has shown that with the onset of puberty the value systems that form the basis for status in peer-groups begin to vary considerably from those thought to exist by adults.

By asking children from kindergarten through grade eight to choose two classmates whom they would like to have sit with them and then asking their teachers to indicate the children whom they thought would receive the most and least choices, a comparison was obtained between the value patterns that guided the children and the concept of personal relationships shared by the teachers. Teachers of seventh-grade children were only 25 per cent accurate in their judgments of social relationships. For younger children, teacher opinions were much more in agreement with the actual choices made by the students indicating that prior to adolescence there is a tendency for children to accept the value patterns held by adults. As children grow up they tend to develop their own standards of social values that serves as the basis for judging behavior and the worth of other individuals.

These value patterns which tend to be created and perpetuated through imitation and by the initiation of key group members often vary from group to group and from age to age. Young people who possess an abundance of the qualities approved by members of this group—often athletic skill and daring for boys, and friendliness and sense of humor for girls—have little difficulty in adjusting to the requirements of a group. For a considerable number of early adolescents, lack of ability to meet the values cherished by the group becomes a serious problem of adjustment.

2. Problems related to social adjustment. As young people advance into early adolescence they seek to establish lasting social

[14] Paul H. Landis, *op. cit.*, p. 186.

[15] J. L. Moreno, *Who Shall Survive?* Washington: Nervous and Mental Disease Publishing Co., 1934, 437 pp.

relationships with peer groups. At this time their behavior is strongly motivated by the desire to become accepted with full status as a member of the group. They desire to be well liked by others; consequently, the tendency to conform to customs of the group is strong. In order to establish satisfying social contacts young people actively seek opportunities for experience with other individuals of their own age group.

Social adjustment becomes complicated during early adolescence by the rather sudden differentiation that develops between the sexes. Without having any choice in the matter little boys and girls who have previously played together without much concern for sex differences begin growing up into young men and young women. Not only must adjustment with other members of the same sex be made but at this stage it is necessary to learn to adjust to members of the opposite sex. The beginnings of problems related to adjustment to the opposite sex are illustrated by an incident in which two seventh-grade boys described a new problem to their home room teacher somewhat as follows:

> We don't know what's happened to Mary. Guess she has gone high-hat or something. We have played with her all our lives and used to have lots of fun. But lately she acts crazy and won't have anything to do with us. Yesterday, when we tried to get her to play ball she said she didn't like playing ball anymore. When I just gave her a little push like I always have many times before, she told her mother on me.

In this case Mary was one of the girls who was still turning cartwheels on the way to and from school when she first entered junior high school. About two months later, shortly before this incident was reported, her behavior changed abruptly. At the same time the entire pattern of childhood social adjustments maintained by Mary and her friends began to disintegrate.

Complicating the problems of social adjustment during early adolescence are such factors as physical awkwardness, fear of being different, and loneliness.[16] Adolescents who find that their stage of physical growth prevents them from developing proficiency in games and skills worry about ways of compensating for these weaknesses. Clinical studies [17] show that the child who is unable to establish satisfactory membership within a peer-group soon becomes maladjusted and lonesome. He feels unwanted and is likely to de-

[16] Luella Cole and John J. B. Morgan, *Psychology of Childhood and Adolescence.* New York: Rinehart and Company, Inc., 1947.
National Society for the Study of Education, *Adolescence.* Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1944, Chaps. XI and XII, pp. 198–239.

[17] Luella Cole and John J. B. Morgan, *op. cit.,* p. 169.

cide that no one cares for him or for his contributions. As a result, he may strive to gain attention through all sorts of overt displays of atypical behavior to prove his worthiness.

3. Problems related to the choice of a vocation. Concern about the choice of a vocation and the future preparation for it represents another type of problem confronted by junior high school students. Often young people who have had little previous opportunity to assume responsibility become concerned about whether they will be able to "hold a job," or develop into vocationally competent adults. When this problem is complicated by pressure from parents or others related to the choice of a particular vocation, it may become so serious that it leads to personal despair and disintegration.

One study of adolescent boys [18] revealed that about half the individuals studied were inclined to worry about their problems. Of the problems about which these boys worried, that of "finding a job later on" was mentioned most frequently. As many as 63 per cent listed this as being a matter of important concern to them. In addition, more than 50 per cent of those included in this study listed "future calling" as a problem that caused them to worry. About 40 per cent indicated that in one way or another they feared future responsibilities. Figure 12 illustrates how the boys included in this study feel about their futures.

Helping early adolescents to discover their abilities. Adolescence is very definitely a period of exploration, of "trying out" abilities, and of discovering aptitudes. During early adolescence in particular, boys and girls become fascinated with the process of *discovering themselves.* Guiding the efforts of students who are undertaking to learn about their own abilities becomes a major responsibility of teaching in the junior high school.

Knowledge of abilities is based on acquaintance with various types of performance. Ability, for example, is measured in terms of how well one can perform a given task. One of the commonest ways of finding out about abilities is through the administration of specially constructed tests which measure either ability to perform actual tasks, as is measured in tests of mathematical skill, or that ability to perform tasks that are related to the ability being measured. Achievement tests provide a means of helping the learner discover his relative ability in subject-matter fields as compared with other young people who have taken the same tests. Various kinds of intelligence tests have been developed to measure intellectual ability in general as well as certain aspects of in-

[18] Urban H. Fleege, *op. cit.*, p. 313.

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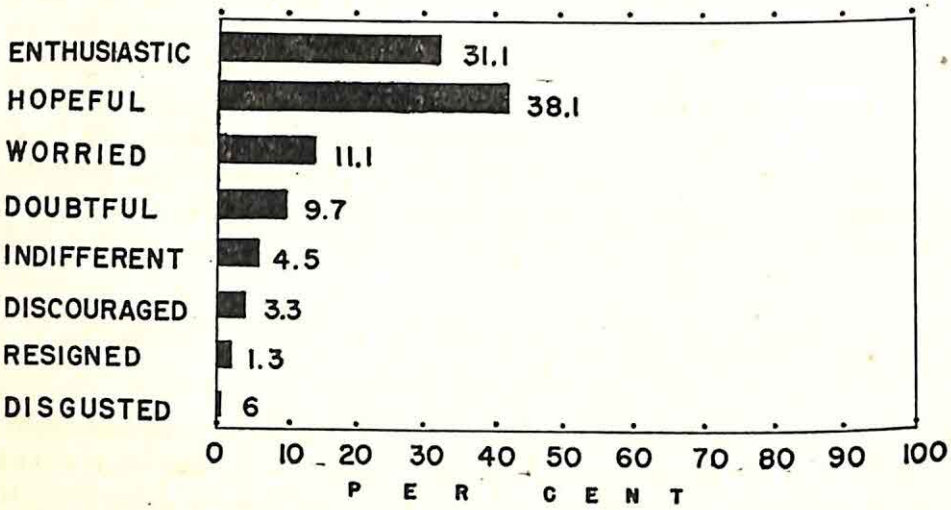
FIGURE 12

THE FEELINGS OF ADOLESCENT BOYS ABOUT THEIR FUTURES



(After Fleege)

telligence such as spatial relationships, abstraction, and verbal ability. Both types of tests are useful as indirect indicators of ability.

Young people attempting to plan their futures become concerned about their capacities in certain fields. The junior high school student who tentatively decides on a vocational choice that requires mathematical skill may eagerly seek to learn the extent to which he possesses such ability.

Special abilities, such as those related to art, music, or dramatics, are also measured by performance; but in such a case measurement is more closely related to ability to do or to learn to do the task being measured, rather than the ability to answer questions on a standardized test. Measurement of special abilities implies the need for provision of many opportunities within a broad curriculum that makes provision for many types of courses and for "trying out" abilities and aptitudes. Inasmuch as many abilities can be improved with practice and instruction, students may gain added incentive for attempting to strengthen such abilities if they are directly related to future vocational and avocational objectives.

In general, attitudes are more important in junior high school than amount of ability. An interest that results in a high degree

of effort and a wholesome attitude toward work, study, classmates, group unity, tolerance, and devotion to a sound system of values is worth more than a high score in an abstract intelligence test or in an achievement test in a particular subject field. Likewise, social ability that is measured in terms of getting along with others, with taking one's place in a group, exhibiting social qualities of sharing responsibility, co-operating in group activities, adjusting to new social situations, and willingness to help promote the welfare of the school and the community is more important than abstract intelligence when wholesome adjustment and effective citizenship are viewed as important goals of junior high school instruction.

Assisting the Young Adolescent to Become a Social Being

The early adolescent, while feeling the desire to act independently, is at the same time developing a need to become established as an accepted member of a group. Childhood gangs permit ready transfer from one group to another. Adolescent groupings tend to remain constant for longer periods of time. Young people may form friendships in adolescent groups that persist throughout a lifetime.

Promoting group interaction. The manner in which we teach early adolescents may play an important part in their ability to develop and maintain adjustment within peer groups. When we teach in such a way that personal interactions are discouraged, the establishment of group rapport as described in Chapter 12 is made difficult. If our method of teaching treats each student as an independent individual who must "do his own work," "receive no help," and "keep quiet while in school," we may achieve an orderly classroom and a situation in which "no problems arise"; but we will not be furthering individual social adjustment. We may be contributing to individual maladjustment and perhaps disintegration because the problems that are not permitted to reveal themselves in school will probably emerge in more serious ways in other realms of student activity. Such an approach to teaching permits no mutual respect, no sympathetic relationships between the teacher and students or among classmates.

Group interaction can best be furthered by establishing an emotional setting that encourages friendly, relaxed associations between members of the group. To create such a setting it is necessary to provide an atmosphere that is free from fear, coercion,

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and arbitrary external control. It is essential to help young people learn to share their experiences—social, recreational, and educational—with their classmates in such a way that mutual respect and acceptance are accorded to all.

Helping each person to find a place in the group. Three aspects of social rank existing in American society operate to make it difficult for certain individuals to find a place within a peer-group.[19] These include (1) the ranking of social classes from upper class through various shades of middle class to one or more levels of lower class; (2) ethnic or foreign-born groups; and (3) color castes. Efforts to maintain a given social rank or to move from one rank to the next highest play an important part in the problem of helping early adolescents to find satisfactory acceptance within a social group. Concentrated efforts to "keep the individual within his social place" become recognizable during the junior high school years. It is at this time that color, religion, location of residence, and family background become factors in accepting as an intimate associate another individual. Youth who have developed behavior patterns acceptable to one social rank may find it difficult to merge with a group in which young people from other categories are included. Likewise, behavior acceptable and necessary in a lower class group may be entirely inappropriate in a school group composed of representatives from all of the different socio-economic levels.

Teachers should assume responsibility for helping individuals to find groups in which they can gain enjoyable and profitable associations. This implies also that it will be necessary frequently to induce established groups to accept new individuals for membership. One way to encourage a group to expand its realm of acceptance is by helping members of the group to study their own standards of acceptance in the light of social purposes and individual needs within a framework that is expressive of a sound theory of democratic living.

Assisting youth to develop social skills. In order to help young adolescents to grow in social competency, we need to develop procedures in teaching that emphasize improvement of social skills. Instruction should be planned to provide numerous and varied opportunities for early adolescents to work co-operatively. It also should help young people to analyze their abilities to accept and to adjust to others as well as aid individuals to accept responsibility for group action. The results achieved by such instruction

[19] Allison Davis, "Socialization and Adolescent Personality," *Adolescence,* Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, pp. 198–216.

should be evaluted in terms of the social behavior patterns of students both when they are in and out of school, rather than solely in terms of the verbal responses that young people make while under supervision and control. Instruction should be developed in accordance with the theory that young people learn to live effectively in a democratic group through practice in living in such a group. Teaching should be planned not only for improvement of those familiar with demonstrable competencies commonly considered to be essential for wholesome living while in school but, also, should inculcate an inclination to translate worthy attitudes developed in school into adolescent life outside the school.

Helping Early Adolescents Explore Expanding Opportunities

Early adolescents attempt to discover, through questioning, trial and error, or by experimentation, answers to many problems and mysteries that confront them. Among the concerns that loom as important is that of choosing a vocation and planning an educational program appropriate to the choice.

Helping the pupil discover vocational and educational opportunities. Prior to puberty young people as a group prefer only a relatively small number of vocations. Boys wish to become airline pilots, doctors, engineers, lawyers, and professional athletes; while girls think of themselves as prospective actresses, airline hostesses, models, and nurses. During the junior high school young people discover many additional possible vocational choices from which to choose their life work.

While planning ways to help junior high school students further their vocation plans, it should be recognized that individuals at this age are actively concerned about this problem. Some argue that inasmuch as many vocational aptitude tests may be relatively invalid for people below the age of sixteen, it is useless to attempt to interest students of this age in the study and consideration of future careers. Although it is true that the vocational interests of early adolescents are not so stable as those for older individuals, it must be recognized that the very nature of the exploration to which the junior high school student is inclined goes hand in hand with an extensive rather than a limited variety of impressions relative to his possible vocational future.[20] Early adolescence

[20] Harold D. Carter, "The Development of Interest in Vocations," *Adolescence*, pp. 255–276.

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is the time during which vocational interests are most actively developed. At this time we may expect to find the process of choosing future vocations characterized by the following:

1. Emotional and dramatic concepts of popular professions.
2. Conflicts between the desires of parents and growing interests of children.
3. Superficial verbal choices that are expressive of desire to maintain status within a peer-group.
4. A tendency to choose the new and the difficult.
5. Instability with respect to vocational preference.

In the past much of the vocational exploration provided junior high school students has been organized in special exploratory courses, home rooms, or core courses. In such formally organized classes, the academic study of vocations has typically been supplemented by part-time work experiences, excursions, interviews, audio-visual experiences, the use of occupational checklists, and by listening to visiting speakers. This type of provision for vocational study has been of great value; but it has frequently represented too artificial an approach and has not succeeded in making provision for sufficient attention to this important problem. It is coming to be recognized that teachers must take steps to adapt almost every educational experience to the vocational concerns and interests of early adolescents.

In adapting teaching to vocational needs and interests we must first of all make provision for exploration. Implied is the development of broad units, with many different experiences, rather than the placing of emphasis upon narrow specialization. It suggests that students should be permitted and encouraged to explore in different fields and within specific subject areas even though the exploration may not prove successful for all youth. This procedure is in contradiction to the frequent practice of requiring junior high school students to repeat "exploratory" courses when they have failed to achieve the required minimum standards of subject matter mastery.

Guiding the development of personal interests. The inclination of early adolescents to be interested in the new—that which is different and unusual—provides a basis for the development and expansion of personal interests. The utilization of vocational interest inventories, both general and specialized, offers one way to encourage evaluation of existing interests. Special interest inventories have been developed that include such fields as musical aptitude, art appreciation, mechanical aptitude, and mathemati-

cal interests as well as most of the standard subject fields and a variety of occupations and leisure activities.

In utilizing recognized interests as a source of motivation it is important, first of all, to help young people to appreciate those interests that are related to future vocational goals. Whenever it is possible to relate an interest to a future goal it becomes a simple matter to transfer the pupil's attention to learning experiences that are related to such a goal. Interest can be stimulated by:

1. Permitting students with similar interests to work together.
2. Comparing interests within a group.
3. Imitating the interests of a popular hero.
4. Discovery of successful participation because of innate capacity.
5. Satisfying experiences.
6. Prestige experience.
7. Dramatic events related to particular interests.
8. Development of hobbies.
9. Conducting experimentation related to possible interests.

Assisting students gain experience in making choices. Early adolescence represents a time of acceleration for tentatively choosing careers, educational plans, personal ambitions, friends, sweethearts, and personal value schemes. Adults may consider these choices to be mainly superficial and in the realm of childish fancy or puppy love. Even when they have some understanding of the manner in which maturity takes place, adults are inclined to regard such choices as tentative. To individual boys and girls, however, these choices are real and vital and in terms of their own feelings at the time, permanent. Too often adults make light of the choices made by early adolescents on the grounds that most of them are so temporary that it is a waste of time to devote any attention to them. This point of view is shortsighted, however, inasmuch as it overlooks the value to be gained from the motivation that such choices afford. Freedom of expression concerning vocational preferences can be used as a basis for the development of evaluative ability and experience.

It should be recognized that although choices may be characterized by adults as tentative, the making of them is an important step in the process of maturation. If children are to become adults capable of making their own decisions, they should be encouraged during early adolescence, at the latest, to make choices with respect to problems that are important to them. Our responsibility as teachers lies in the direction of helping youth grow grad-

ually in ability to make choices intelligently. Care needs to be exercised to make sure that young people are not forced to make choices beyond their range or level of ability. This danger can be avoided, however, if co-operative sharing between the teachers and students is the method employed in guiding learning activities.

Opportunities for providing such experiences are found in the following:

1. The choosing of student activities.
2. The choice of subjects to be studied—both explanatory and those related to tentative vocational plans.
3. The selection of units of study that have validity for the learner.
4. The learning experiences chosen to accompany the units selected.

In general, choice-making is accomplished most easily at first through the group process. Individual students who feel insecure when making choices by themselves gain confidence while sharing with other students in the process. As students grow in confidence and security in making choices co-operatively, they become able to develop self-direction in terms of personal problems.

A primary responsibility in promoting the making of choices is that of providing a pattern of teaching that permits choices to be made. Secondly, recognition and respect should be accorded the choices made by young people. After choices have been made, growth may be furthered by helping individual boys and girls as well as groups as a whole to evaluate their choices in terms of developing experiences.

Stimulating Growth in Self-Direction

Teaching may be regarded as successful only when it helps adolescent youth to become increasingly independent in terms of individual and social competency. During early adolescence, when young people naturally are seeking to establish patterns of independent behavior, exceptional opportunity is afforded for guiding and encouraging growth in this direction. To stimulate the improvement of competence in self-direction, learning situations should provide opportunities for actual practice by students. Learning activities should also make provision for experiences in democratically conducted decision-making by groups of students. At the same time students should be continually encouraged to

take independent action with respect to significant personal problems.

Making experimental self-direction possible. A study of teaching methods, materials of instruction, and rules and regulations and the curriculum of the traditional secondary school reveals how little provision was made for self-direction by students. In some schools self-direction was not only difficult but impossible, since the pattern of teaching employed actually developed almost complete dependence upon both the teacher and the textbook.

It is not surprising that in such situations the individuals who continued longest in school frequently became the most insecure and the most timid when confronted with problems of life outside the school. Not infrequently, also, youth who withdrew from school became the most independent and the most capable of self-direction.[21]

It is unrealistic to assume that growth in the capacity for self-direction will take place naturally as a concomitant of traditional school experiences. Many youth will, outside the school and perhaps in spite of their school experience, learn how to direct their own actions effectively. So strong is the adolescent urge for independence that, with little or no school-provided assistance, they somehow work out solutions of their own of one sort or another. The importance, however, of self-direction to social competency in a democratic society suggests that it should be a major goal of instruction rather than an outcome that we hope youth will achieve in "extracurricular" activities.

Growth in self-direction, like all growth, is unitary and gradual. Some early adolescents are reluctant, at first, to make decisions for themselves. Unless these students are encouraged to try and unless they are provided experiences that make self-direction possible and necessary, they will continue to depend on others for the making of decisions. We must not make the mistake of further weakening such individuals by assuming them to be already in possession of competencies in respect to responsibility that they have not yet learned to carry. The child who succeeds in completing a teacher-made assignment perfectly by depending exclusively on the directions of the teacher probably has learned one thing—to follow directions accurately. Unless he also learns to think and

[21] It is significant to note that the first statement of functions of secondary education that stressed social competency was not developed until 1918. Although the first junior high school was developed in 1911 its early major purposes were conceived to be related to moving such academic subjects as Latin and mathematics into the elementary school in order to shorten the program of secondary education to permit early entrance into college.

act in terms of his own values and understanding, he is likely to become the type of citizen who acts only upon the direction of others. As such, he will exist as an "easy touch" for despotic theories and conditions of living that depend for their success upon training the young to follow the directions of their leaders.

Providing for sharing. "Team spirit" is a strong force for motivating the actions of early adolescents. If we are wise, we will capitalize upon group co-operation rather than attempt to pit students competitively against each other. Early efforts in the direction of sharing need careful guidance.

The contribution that can be made in providing for sharing by early adolescents is one of the most important factors in the development of social competence. If youth learns during junior high school years in such manner that sharing is impossible or difficult, if the classroom situation emphasizes individual competitiveness rather than co-operative activity, and if young people are made to feel that as they grow older they should increasingly work independently, early adolescents will establish behavior patterns that are characterized by self-centered attitudes toward each other. Unless sharing becomes an important part of the experiences of early adolescents, they may carry such attitudes into their adult adjustments.

Illustrations of the many ways in which experiences in sharing may be provided follow:

1. Encouraging members of a class to work as a team in developing a cohesive group atmosphere.
2. Permitting students to work in committees related to various tasks that need to be done for their groups.
3. Developing group experiments that necessitate shared experiences.
4. Providing for sharing in class parties, field trips, excursions, the utilization of audio-visual equipment, assembly programs.
5. Arranging for members of one class to work with another class group on a project of mutual interest.
6. Helping members of a class work co-operatively to render a service to the school, such as the decoration of a portion of the school building or the planting of a school garden.
7. Participation in a community improvement project.
8. Conducting group research within the community.
9. Providing for genuine shared relationships between students and teachers in the management of the school.

Harmonizing individual and group actions. Individual action has a highly important contribution to make to the process of social interaction that is itself indispensable for the successful functioning of a highly interdependent society. Superficially, it might be concluded that independent action exists in contradiction to co-operation. Some support this belief and view anything that is characterized by sharing as socialism. They see only rugged individualism of the most selfish sort as being in agreement with democratic living. In reality, however, human beings often gain their motive for independent action out of experiences based on their interactions with others. A member of a school band may practice alone many hours on his saxophone, but his motivation comes from his desire to play with others or to perform for the enjoyment of his friends—both being activities in which sharing is emphasized. If he were to be denied the satisfaction of his relationship with the band and the privilege of playing before an audience, he would probably lose almost all interest in trying to master the instrument. Another student may study a foreign language independently in order that he may enjoy communication with others in what he regards to be a novel manner and that he may receive commendation for his efforts in the presence of his fellow students. In a somewhat similar instance, a grown man may work independently in order to earn a living not only for himself but for the loved ones in his family group. In all such social situations, sharing is the motive for independent action.

Individuals often gain incentive for independent action when the tasks that they contemplate are related to social purposes or group needs. In many instances independent action will have more intense appeal for students in proportion to the extent that they perceive a relationship between the task and the satisfaction that can be achieved as an outcome of sharing the experiences it involves with the class group. As students gain ability to see relationships between action and long-term goals of either immediate or removed groups, they become willing to work independently on tasks, the rewards for which may not be immediately attained. Ultimately this attitude may be developed until it becomes comparable to that of the scientist who performs research that is likely to have no immediate application. He sees himself related to all humanity and realizes that sometime in the future his efforts will be recognized as important links in man's understanding of his environment.

It is not to be inferred that individuals cannot be motivated

to independent action without desiring to further the goals of a group. Certainly many individuals are capable of working desperately hard for selfish objectives that, if realized, may harm the groups to which they belong. If the motives of such antisocial action are studied, however, it is usually found that whereas an individual may seem to be taking independent action contrary to his social relationships, in reality he simply may be working in terms of his identification with another group, the existence of which is not readily observable. It should be pointed out that this type of motivation may spring from disloyalty to one group in contrast to loyalty to another, as is true in the case of the traitor or of the criminal. In every case, when co-operation, mutual respect, and shared responsibility are the aims of educative experience, individual action grows most effectively out of group goals and experiences in co-operative living.

Young people need guidance during their early adolescent years if they are to grow constructively in capacity for a high quality of independent action. Many will be unable to make much progress in this direction; others will be able to become almost wholly independent during their junior high school years. The quality of teaching made available to them will do much to determine the extent to which boys and girls grow in ability to engage in independent action and the degree to which such action is a response to natural relationships to a co-operative group, as opposed to independent action based upon selfishness and antisocial purposes.

Summary

The junior high school serves youth during a period when, in the course of their natural development, early adolescents begin rapid progress toward readiness for experiences in democratic living. As students pass through the pubescent stage in their growth toward maturity, they need help in understanding themselves. Physiological changes with their accompanying emotional states may cause serious maladjustments in both boys and girls unless they can be helped to realize what is happening to them. Although a majority of young people pass normally from childhood to adolescence without serious concern, studies have shown that a significant number experience disturbances based directly upon their lack of understanding of themselves.

One of the most noticeable growth trends that we recognize in early adolescents is their desire to become independent of parents,

teachers and others who exercise control over them. At first, many young people are unable to maintain a degree of competence in assuming responsibilities that is commensurate with their demands for freedom from control. With sympathetic help, however, they may attain increasing ability to achieve such adjustments.

Problems faced by early adolescents include those growing out of changing value patterns, the need for social readjustment, initial choice of a vocation, and a concern for the future. Students of this age are vitally concerned about estimating and understanding their own abilities and aptitudes. They respond readily to opportunity to compare their capacities with those required for different adult courses of vocational and civic action.

Early adolescents need help in establishing relationships with peer-groups, with improving their social competency, with the exploration of vocational and educational opportunities, with the development of personal interests, with the making of tentative choices in a variety of fields, and in terms of initial attempts at self-direction.

Related Experiences

1. If convenient, arrange for a class showing of the following films:

Meeting the Emotional Needs in Childhood (30 minutes: sound). Distributed by New York University, New York, N. Y. A film depicting the kind of attitude toward people and the sense of community responsibility that children should develop as they grow to adulthood.

Problem Children (18 minutes: silent). Distributed by the State Division of Mental Hygiene, Columbus, Ohio. Filmed in The University School, The Ohio State University. Shows the individual differences in early adolescents and the types of problems that may result from such differences.

Human Growth (19 minutes: sound). Produced and Distributed by the University of Oregon Medical School, Portland, Oregon. Available in most State Department of Education and University Film Service libraries. A film for use in group instruction in human growth. Illustrates ways in which the teacher of early adolescents may help young people consider delicate personal problems related to sexual maturation.

2. Plan to observe a group of seventh-grade students for the purpose of noting differences in physical stature at this age.

3. Attend a mixed party for junior high school students. Watch for (1) students who tend to hesitate to participate in games or dancing with members of the opposite sex; (2) students who try to "cover up" by being boisterous in their social relationships; and (3) the differences in observable maturity between boys and girls. Compare your observations with those of other members of your group.

4. Discuss with members of your teacher-education group the fears and concerns you experienced as you passed through the early stages of adolescence. See how many members of your group of prospective teachers had disturbances similar to those listed on page 468.

5. Arrange for interviews with one or two parents of early adolescents in order to learn the kind of problems they find in connection with their children at this age.

Visit your local juvenile court to observe the types of problems that early adolescents develop that finally result in conflict with adult legal standards of behavior.

Suggested Readings

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GRUHN, WILLIAM, AND DOUGLASS, HARL R., *The Modern Junior High School.* New York: The Ronald Press, 1947, 492 pp.

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LANDIS, PAUL H., *Adolescence and Youth.* New York: Mc-Graw-Hill Book Company, 1945, 470 pp.

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Chapter 18

HELPING MIDDLE ADOLESCENTS GROW TOWARD INDEPENDENCE

Why is it difficult for teachers in senior high schools to develop methods of teaching that contribute to the social purposes of education and the needs of middle adolescents? . . . What factors tend to cause middle adolescents to become insecure and maladjusted? . . . How may beginnings in concern for the common welfare be initiated? . . . What attitudes are frequently possessed by senior high school youth toward their homes and schools? . . . In what ways may youth be helped to adjust to adult behavior requirements? . . . Indicate various types of reactions of young people to regulations imposed by adults. . . . Characterize trends that may be found in individual growth with respect to such factors as assurance, sociability, and popularity. . . . What values do middle adolescents emphasize when they are permitted to formulate behavior codes for themselves? . . . To what extent should senior high school youth be expected to grow toward independence? . . .

Development of methods of teaching that contribute to the purposes of democratic education has been more difficult in the senior high school than at any other level of public education. The junior high school and the junior college are comparatively new and free from the traditions that tend to characterize the traditional high school. These two institutions were established recently in the interests of new purposes and in terms of the needs of youth. They were conceived, in many respects, as experimental schools. Perhaps most important of all, the junior high school and the junior college are American institutions. As a result, they have been concerned from their beginning with developing methods conducive to growth in the objectives of education in our type of society.

In contrast, the senior high school has been forced to carry a

heavy load of inherited purposes. Instruction in the senior high school is still judged largely in terms of how well it prepares a small minority of students for college. It is also still hindered, in many schools, by an abiding faith in the "mind-training" value of memory work in certain subjects and the belief that transfer of training is largely automatic. Consciously emphasizing preparation for college success, a concerted effort is frequently undertaken to make the senior high school as much like the college as possible. Heavy reliance on lecture and recitation methods has led too many to regard verbalization as the most important evidence of learning. Adherence to traditional practices associated with acceptance of external motivation as a suitable method to compel students to learn subject matter that often was beyond their range of interest as well as above their level of understanding has long been associated with the typical high school. To overcome these limitations is the task that confronts those who have a voice in working out the destiny of the senior high school. The extent to which we are able to recognize and meet the personal and social needs of all middle adolescents will determine our success in this undertaking.

Helping Middle Adolescents Maintain Integration

When an individual is able to maintain harmonious personal adjustment to the standards, demands, and responsibilities of the group of which he is a member, he is said to be well integrated.[1] Human beings strive to maintain integration both psychologically and socially. Education is concerned with both types of adjustment, but the high school is especially concerned with the social adjustment of the student as he approaches maturity and acquires or fails to acquire an adequate degree of readiness to participate contributively to adult society. All phases of adjustment are interrelated. Deficient psychological integration may contribute to poor social integration, and consequent social maladjustment may result in psychological illness.

Furthering adjustment to adult standards. As young people grow toward independence, they are increasingly faced with necessity to comply with the rules and regulations that apply to their elders. No longer do they find their conduct accepted as that of irresponsible children. Instead, parents, teachers, and others begin to expect and demand forms of conduct that are in agreement

[1] L. Thomas Hopkins, *Integration: Its Meaning and Application.* New York: D. Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1937, 315 pp.

with adult behavior. Sixteen-year-old boys and girls who drive the family automobile may not be held legally responsible for their actions, but they are expected by their parents and by other drivers on the road to comply with all traffic regulations that govern the movement of vehicles. In such cases pressure is brought to bear by parents and community to obtain from adolescents the same kind of behavior that is expected of adults.

Responsibility for abiding by patterns of behavior commonly required of adults in the community frequently results in considerable confusion and frustration for the individual during the period of his middle adolescence. At this stage, the individual desires the freedom of self-direction that is accorded to adults, but frequently he is unable to exhibit the responsibility such freedom implies for maintaining adult standards of conduct.[2] Young people who seek employment are expected to be trustworthy, punctual, competent, co-operative, and respectful to the wishes of their employers. They are expected to give an honest hour's work for an hour's pay. Although they are teen-agers, when they accept part or full time employment on the same basis as adults, they are expected to accept responsibilities comparable to those assumed by older workers.

Aiding youth assume responsibility for group welfare.[3] High school youth is increasingly expected to be willing to accept responsibility for the general welfare of the community group. Together with adults they should be able, presumably, to protect and preserve—rather than destroy—private and public property. They are encouraged to assume responsibility for the improvement of the community, its schools, parks, playgrounds, civic activities, recreational facilities and programs, and religious organizations.

Young people not only begin work for remuneration during their high school years, they are called upon frequently to contribute work service toward the improvement of community life. They may, for example, be invited to clear a plot of land for a recreational center, or they may have an opportunity to participate in community drives, such as those of the Community Chest, the American Red Cross, boy or girl scouts, and in clean-up and safety campaigns.

High school students in one community contributed valuable

[2] Evidence that most high school students think largely in terms of rights and privileges rather than with respect to responsibilities will be found in *Learning the Ways of Democracy*. Washington, D. C.: Educational Policies Commission, NEA, 1940, p. 47.

[3] See *Learning the Ways of Democracy*, p. 128, for illustrations of ways in which high school students can assume responsibility for group welfare.

service in the area of improving public health. At a time when the community was struggling against a drastic dengue fever epidemic they undertook to rid the community of the disease carrier —the mosquito. These high school students first surveyed the entire community, visiting each home, to discover the presence of rain barrels, cisterns, and receptacles containing stagnant water. They even went to the cemetery to empty the many urns that stood after each rainfall as natural breeding places for mosquitoes. With co-operation from the city health department they placed oil on all water that could not be emptied. These activities necessitated the development by these young people of a public relations program in order to obtain the co-operation of other citizens of the community. This activity led to a study of public health problems, a consideration of the best ways to inform others about the seriousness of the situation they were combating, and to much real learning on a functional basis about the habits of the mosquitoes that carry the dengue fever organism.

Helping youth to adjust to family and school. The problem of meeting the demands of adults within the family and the school make it difficult for many senior high school students to maintain psychological and social integration. Parents may demand that their children continue to give absolute obedience. They may require continuance of childhood schedules and patterns of living. They may expect the same family loyalty, the same demonstrations of affection, and the same deference to parental wishes from middle adolescents as little children were accustomed to giving.

Although most youth feel that their home life is happy,[4] a considerable number feel that their parents do not treat them as they prefer to be treated, or they feel that parents attempt to control their behavior too closely. Fleege found that almost 40 per cent of 2000 boys felt that their parents were "too much concerned about what they did." [5] Ten per cent felt that there was too much discipline at home and 14 per cent resented the way in which they were treated by their parents. An additional 10 per cent indicated that their parents did not treat them satisfactorily. Other reactions toward parents indicated by adolescents in this study included fear of parents, belief that parents were old-fashioned; feeling that demands by parents were unreasonable; conflict of viewpoints between father and son; and dissatisfaction with the degree of social

[4] Urban H. Fleege, *Self-Revelation of the Adolescent Boy*. Milwaukee, Wis.: The Bruce Publishing Company, 1945, p. 55.
[5] *Ibid.*, p. 54.

freedom they were allowed. Whereas approximately 56 per cent of these high school boys reported that their parents set a definite time for them to return home at night; 30 per cent indicated that they occasionally or regularly disregarded such regulations.

The school, likewise, may fail to adapt its teaching and program of studies to the maturity level and individual differences of middle adolescents. It may demand absolute obedience, conformity, uniform behavior, and achievement of the same learning outcomes to be arrived at through identical procedures, a policy that often results in direct conflict with many aspects of developmental growth patterns that are typical of high school youth. The data recorded in Table II summarizes the attitudes Fleege found prevalent among senior high school boys concerning academic subject matter.[6] Almost 80 per cent of these same boys indicated that they

TABLE II

ADOLESCENT APPRAISAL OF SUBJECTS IN THE SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL CURRICULUM

STUDENT ATTITUDE	YES	NO	NO DECISION
Feel well fitted for subjects you have to take?	57%	41.4%	1.6%
Have to take subjects that will not do you any good?	70%	27.6%	2.4%

(After Fleege—1946)

worried about studies, and 67 per cent reported that they were frequently concerned over the marks they received. Although over half the 2000 youth reported that they frequently worried about low marks, it is significant to note that about 20 per cent indicated that high marks tended to disgust rather than to encourage them. Almost a third of these boys reported that they feared rather than revered their teachers. Dissatisfaction with at least some of their teachers was expressed by 75 per cent of the twelfth-grade boys with the percentage of dissatisfaction having increased consistently with each grade in school.

Middle-adolescent youth face many problems in both the home and school in maintaining personal integration with others and with their environment. Such problems must be given serious attention if growth and development are to be furthered in a society that imposes an adult framework upon its growing youth. In particular, there is a need to make certain that the methods of

[6] *Ibid.*, p. 141.

instruction employed do not further aggravate and support the forces that tend to make the maintenance of integration difficult.

Promoting Acceptable Behavior

Middle adolescents are faced with the problem of developing behavior that is acceptable both to themselves and to their elders. This process assumes its greatest complexity between the years of fifteen and eighteen as youth actually become independent in many respects and as they endeavor to exercise newly discovered personal freedom in ways that satisfy themselves and society.

Helping youth to study existing behavior requirements. It is natural to expect that young people who are growing toward self-direction and independence will begin to question many of the behavior requirements that are imposed upon them by adult society. They may actually rebel against many of the rules and regulations that are made for them by their elders. When they do, such action is frequently the basis for much irritation and conflict between middle adolescents and adults.

Many students question the regulations affecting conduct to which they are asked to conform in school. Although a majority of students comply at least halfheartedly without open revolt, a considerable minority assert their unwillingness to accept imposed regulations by breaking them whenever possible. The danger involved in this situation is self-evident. When youth rebel against the properly constituted authority of the home and school, it is an easy next step to refuse to accept other essential regulations adopted by the adult community of which they are a part. At one time or another most youth, in feeling strong urges to exercise independence, adopt habits of negative action when confronted with the restrictions and regulations established or endorsed by various agencies of control in society. Such attitudes and actions, if permitted to thrive, form a basis for incorrigibility and delinquency.

If undesirable consequences are to be avoided, instruction of middle adolescents must be organized to assume major responsibility for helping young people who are passing through this stage of development to study objectively the behavior requirements that have been formulated for their guidance by adults who are interested in their growth and future well-being. It is important that students be encouraged to analyze the patterns of conduct against which they feel resentment in order that they may decide for themselves, in terms of recognized functional values, why

more mature individuals accepted such behavior codes. At the same time, young people need assistance in learning how to effect changes in existing rules and regulations that they find to be unacceptable in the light of objective evaluation. Usually every home and school maintains a few useless or unreasonable regulations, regarding conduct, that contribute little to the goals of the institutions maintaining them or to the individuals whose conduct they purport to affect. Adolescents readily recognize such regulative incongruities and may generalize from them to the point of assuming that many other regulations are nonfunctional or should be regarded as nonapplicable. A contribution can be made at this point by bringing intelligence and objectivity to bear upon the decision-making process and by employing guidance techniques that enable youth to participate in the direction of changing rather than breaking unrealistic regulations.

Most regulations maintained by social groups, however, are necessary and functional in terms of the perpetuation of the group. Our problem becomes one of helping young people discover for themselves the significant facts and realities that originally supported the adoption of such regulations. For youth who are maintaining healthy social adjustment and who are achieving maturity at a normal rate, this is not a serious problem. They will readily recognize the importance of accepting patterns of living that have been found useful in maintaining effective group life. For a few it will be a difficult task inasmuch as they will not be making normal adjustments, perhaps because of previous experiences associated with distortions in growth patterns. Youth who are still immature in the sense that they remain dependent upon adults for direction will accept such regulations as a matter of course. In so doing, they may be developing serious adjustmental problems by perpetuating the habit of following external direction when they should be moving toward habits of independent thought and action.

In a group of middle adolescents the following ways of reacting to established behavior codes will be found:

1. Complete acceptance of adult imposed regulations because of immaturity. Such immaturity may be natural during slow or late development or it may be a result of continuing overextended external control that has been enforced by parents and teachers. Youth who are continually treated as children and who find unusual satisfaction in the commendations they receive for compliance with the wishes of adults may remain too long in a state of childhood dependence. Some individuals never pass through

this stage of growth and continue throughout physical adulthood to be dependent upon others for direction.

2. *Compliance with regulations for security reasons.* Some boys and girls discover the advantages to be gained from complying with adult regulations even though they do not actually understand or accept their significance. These youth form habits of discovering "what the teacher wants" them to do; they then follow such wishes explicitly. This attitude of appeasement is found to exist in all levels of every society that depends for its source of control upon external authority. In the American secondary school it has commonly been described as "apple polishing." More recently, with the return of veterans from World War II, it has been accorded various other derogatory connotations. The danger in accepting this type of adjustment as functionally practicable lies largely in the fact that young people who habitually adhere to such policies of compliance and insincerity are not developing a healthy, normal capacity for self-direction. Instead, they are continually improving their capacity for deceitfulness and for adaptation to negative or subversive values.

3. *Overt acceptance of existing regulations while under supervision.* Those youth who resist behavior codes that they do not understand may have established such firm habits of "doing what is expected of them" that they comply with the requirements imposed by adults whenever it is important that they do so in order to avoid a sharp break with custom. These youth usually abide by the regulations while under supervision. They soon become quite hardened, however, to digressions when among members of their peer-groups and "out from under" the immediate observation of adults. This group includes a large percentage of the pupil population of the traditional senior high school. They do what is expected or required of them, a practice that often leads us to conclude that high school youth must be supervised constantly or else they will not "behave themselves."

4. *Open revolt against imposed regulations.* Many young people, particularly those who exhibit greater maturity than most of their fellows, revolt openly against regulations that are imposed without provision having been made for their understanding of the necessity for their existence. Although we frequently class members of this group as "trouble makers," in reality many of them, perhaps, should be thought of as representing the "cream of the crop" of the secondary school population. They have developed their independence to the point that they refuse to accept domination from others. They are seeking ways of determining

their own codes of social conduct. They have a courageous belief in their own personal convictions and sufficient personal security and adjustment to rebel against adult domination. For many of these youth, such rebellion will be temporary and will persist only as long as it takes individuals concerned to examine the values that they feel are compatible with their own ideals of living. For others, such rebellion may become an enduring attitude that leads to continuing vigorous protestation against all expressions of authority which they do not individually approve.

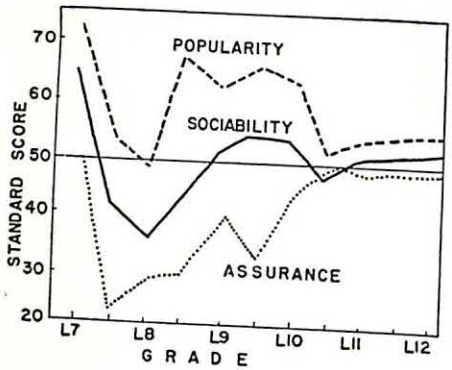
Individuals who have a dominant predisposition to an attitude of this sort may develop either into "cranks" if their social adjustment is neglected, or into crusaders, the realization of whose goals may await only the leadership their energy and zeal can supply and an awakening social consciousness of the need for reform and improvement. This vigorous extrovert moralist type, on the other hand, if not wisely guided, may develop such opposing traits as complexes involving bitterness, suspicion, and distrust, overt expression of which may do them and the reform movements they advocate more injury than good. For such individuals, the revolt may become serious in that it may develop into responses that are opposed to all types of imposed control and lead to continuous attempts to break—as contrasted to efforts to change and improve —established regulations. Traditionally, this group has been considered as one of our major problems in high schools. Attempts to supervise young people who respond in this manner have ranged from expulsion from class or school to a variety of lesser forms of negative disciplinary action that have been imposed whenever established regulations are questioned or broken.

Encouraging the Co-operative Development of Behavior Codes

Sooner or later most young people become concerned with the degree to which their personal attitudes and adjustments are natural and normal. Individuals desire to learn whether the picture they are developing of themselves agrees with the way in which others see them. For those boys and girls who are significantly retarded or accelerated in their maturation patterns such problems become serious and often lead to prolonged unrest and insecurity. One twelfth-grade boy first revealed this concern to his counselor by asking, "Is there anything wrong with me? I just don't seem to be interested in girls and parties and dancing.

FIGURE 13

SOCIAL RATINGS OF A TWELFTH-GRADE BOY



(After Newman—Case of Stewart)

I'd rather go hunting any day than even talk to a girl. But is that normal?"

In helping students understand their social adjustments it is important to recognize that "cross-sectional" records of examples of behavior at a given time may not be used with assurance as representative of adjustments at other times. Some young people may be perfectly normal one year and then change rapidly as environmental and personal factors impinge upon adjustment. Figure 13 shows adjustment of a twelfth-grade boy, throughout junior and senior high school, with respect to three characteristics: popularity, sociability, and assurance.[7] During the second semester of the seventh grade this boy changed from an average-to-high position, as compared with other members of his group, to much lower levels in all three of these traits.[8] This drop was followed a semester later by a gradual to rapid return to his former position. If only the ratings obtained during the twelfth grade were known it would be impossible to guess that these fluctuations had characterized the previous developmental pattern.

During middle adolescence young people frequently adjust differently with respect to their associations with members of each sex. A girl who maintains a normal relationship with other girls may be ill at ease and retiring when in the presence of boys. The pattern for such characteristics as self-confidence, popularity, self-assertion, attention seeking, affectation, compliance with authority, and leadership may present two distinctly different pictures of adjustment when developed in relationship to members of the same and opposite sex.

During middle adolescence young people usually show signs of beginning to judge their own behavior in terms of its effect upon

[7] This case was reported by Frances Burks Newman, *The Adolescent in Social Groups*. Stanford, California: Stanford University Press, Applied Psychology Monographs, No. 9, American Psychological Association, 1946, p. 57.

[8] Ratings were obtained by studying behavior of adolescents in clubhouse groups through the use of narrative reports, observations, conferences, and the administration of specially constructed rating scales. Reputation scores and self-report inventories were correlated with the ratings of trained observers.

other members of their peer-groups and, at a higher level, also with respect to personal value patterns. This process leads naturally into the procedure of self-study, analysis, and self-evaluation.

We can help students study their own adjustment through individual conferences, small group discussions, and by providing materials related to such problems. Instruments such as self-reporting inventories, reputation tests, socio-metric scales, personality rating scales, and inventories of attitudes and interests are simple to devise and can be readily employed. Anecdotal records of social behavior observed in both controlled and free situations and in relationship to association with members of both sexes also provide a rich source of data relative to social adjustment patterns of individual students.

Helping youth formulate their own behavior codes. At the same time that young people are critically analyzing the behavior codes accepted by adults and as they increase their understanding of their own behavior adjustments, they begin to establish personal codes of behavior to which they are willing to give allegiance and support. This step is one of the most important in preparation for citizenship, since our way of life depends upon the development of constructive attitudes by citizens who are able to participate in and accept responsibility for determining the quality of living that is to prevail. As middle adolescents attain self-direction and independence they desire to take an active part in making decisions relative to the kind of behavior that they consider to be important and worthy of acceptance.

There is a need for many opportunities to be created for senior high school students to share in the process of formulating behavior codes that provide direction for their actions while in school. Young people need to participate in group decisions that determine school rules and regulations.

This process involves study and analysis of existing rules and regulations that have been adopted previously by other students and teachers. After established codes for individual conduct and group life are understood, students and teachers may profitably take time to consider whether old regulations are still applicable and also whether new agreements are needed in order to assure effective social living. One senior high school made provision for such action by following the policy of discontinuing, at the end of each school year, all rules and regulations except those explicitly legislated by the board of education. Beginning the next year, students first of all considered the rules maintained by the board of education, many of which were necessitated by existing legal

requirements, such as attendance regulations, specific curriculum requirements, and provisions concerning use of public property. Next, they examined the behavior regulations adopted by members of the student body the previous year as background for agreeing upon the conditions under which they desired to live during the new term. The principle of adopting as few general regulations as possible was followed, since it was agreed that the ultimate objective of secondary education was to provide self-direction and self-control.

Illustration of the quality of thinking of middle adolescents relative to the ways in which they desire to live is found in the following statement drawn up by members of the student body at the George School.[9]

GENERAL PRINCIPLES OF GROUP LIVING

1. We aim at the development of full, free, and well-rounded personalities, at clear thinking and genuine sympathy toward other ideas and other people; toward sincere, profitable, and understanding relationships between students and teachers; and toward providing more channels for individual growth through co-operative living.
2. Each person is to be respected as an individual and considered and dealt with as such.
3. Every possible attempt shall be made to lead the individual to realize his responsibility to the group and to form his attitudes and actions accordingly.
4. The general welfare shall be considered as the text of policies, actions, and ideas. Any restrictions must be made only with this in mind.

RIGHTS OF FREEDOM OF OPINION, EXPRESSION, AND TOLERANCE

1. All students and faculty members shall have the right to hold any sincere opinions on any matter.
2. It is necessary that every effort be made to show all possible sides of a question in a fair light in order that a sincere opinion may be based on an unbiased point of view.
3. No person shall be persecuted by physical means, social exclusion, ridicule, or lowered general esteem in the eyes of others for any sincere opinion which he may hold or for any state of affairs over which he has no control.
4. Reading of students should not be subject to the censorship or pressure of the faculty, but students should stand open to their advice.

[9] Educational Policies Commission, *Learning the Ways of Democracy*. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1940, p. 59.

SELF-GOVERNMENT

1. The students should have the right to govern themselves to the greatest possible extent in any aspects of school life in which they would have the time and ability to act as governors.

2. Most aspects of school life shall be regulated by a co-ordinating committee of boys' and girls' councils in co-operation with the faculty. The faculty is not to dominate any of the committees.

3. Social affairs shall be controlled by a committee of students with an adviser or several advisers from the faculty. They shall aim toward creating a social life in which the relations between boys and girls will be as natural as possible, and a school atmosphere in which everyone has a part.

4. Disciplinary measures shall be taken with the sole purpose of helping the students (and thus to promote the welfare of the group as well as of the individual), and of protecting the group from uncooperative individuals. No person shall be given any penalty without just cause and without first having the opportunity to defend himself.

5. In dormitory matters students shall have the right to hold meetings independent of the presence or pressure of the teachers, to decide upon their principles, methods, and rules, and to deal with any problems or concerns that may arise.

6. The right to study in a quiet and suitable place shall be protected by a joint committee. Provision shall be made for special individual needs, and for the protection of students' rights to have part of every day free to use as they please.

RELATIONS OF STUDENTS AND FACULTY

1. The student government body and individuals shall be encouraged to seek the help of any teacher in any matter in which that teacher can help them. They shall look upon the faculty as their guides and shall respect the opinions of the faculty on questions as to what is best for the general welfare.

2. Teachers shall live up to the standards they set for the students except when there is a difference in need arising from their different functions in school life. They should be totally impartial.

3. Any major problems about which the students and faculty disagree shall be considered by a committee made up of delegates from the faculty and students. The faculty, however, shall have the final judgment if the problem can't be solved by co-operative discussion.

This statement, prepared by students without supervision from their teachers, stands out in vivid contrast to the behavior codes that traditionally have been provided for students. In the past, students have either accepted rules established by teachers or rebelled against them. In many instances a major problem in teaching became that of attempting to force young people who were

psychologically ready to share in the formulation of their own behavior codes to comply with regulations that had been already arbitrarily formulated for them. Failure to comply in such cases represented an offense against the person who made the rules; consequently, the burden of forcing compliance rested heavily and unpopularly upon the teacher.

In better-organized situations, members of the group, including the teacher, share in the process of establishing the rules of conduct that seem necessary and useful. Compliance with the pattern agreed upon becomes the responsibility of the entire group. Failure to comply represents an offense against a group agreement in the formulation of which the offender had participated. The teacher's responsibility in such a situation becomes one of creating a setting that emphasizes shared development in the formulation of behavior codes, and also one of constructively guiding analysis of the effect of the regulations agreed upon on the life of the group. Instead of imposing rules upon students, we should help groups learn how to govern themselves. This principle is illustrated by the statement developed by students in The University School, The Ohio State University.

PROPOSAL DEVELOPED BY STUDENT COMMITTEE CONCERNING CITIZENSHIP IN THE UNIVERSITY SCHOOL, THE OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY

Bulletin to Staff and Student Body:
Re: Citizenship in The University School

The members of your Citizenship Committee believe that it would be well for students and teachers to consider a code of behavior that is appropriate throughout the school. In this report the committee is being quite specific in defining appropriate conduct in order that we might get agreement on just what we do believe about the responsibilities of The University School Citizen.

Responsibilities of the University School Citizen (teachers and students).

A. In the Classrooms, Laboratories and Offices, the Good Citizen—
   1. Keeps a clean, orderly room.
      a. Keeps papers picked up.
      b. Keeps blackboards neat and clean.
      c. Straightens chairs.
      d. Takes care of rooms used by others.
      e. Puts waste paper in wastebaskets.
      f. Enters and leaves classrooms politely and quietly.
      g. Watches banging of doors.

B. In the Hall, the Good Citizen—
   1. Walks in the halls.
   2. Picks up paper and helps keep halls clean.
   3. Is courteous to others.
   4. Looks where he is going.
   5. Remembers that classes are in session while he is walking in the halls.
   6. Talks so that only a few can hear—doesn't yell!

C. During Assemblies, the Good Citizen—
   1. Takes his seat in an orderly manner.
   2. Is ready to begin promptly.
   3. Listens attentively—even if he is bored; someone else wants to listen.
   4. Is courteous throughout the program.
   5. Stays until the program is over.
   6. Thanks the speaker if possible.
   7. Leaves in the same orderly manner he entered.
   8. If he doesn't like the assembly programs, speaks to his committeeman instead of griping.

D. In the Lunchroom, the Good Citizen—
   1. Listens politely to all announcements.
   2. Chooses one server for every four persons.
   3. Eats in such a manner that he will not offend those at his table.
   4. Accommodates actions of manners and portions of food to the number at the table.
   5. Attempts to carry on a social conversation.
   6. Remains seated at the table except in cases of emergency.
   7. Clears table completely.
   8. Is polite to waiters.

E. About the School Grounds, the Good Citizen—
   1. Takes pride in its appearance.
   2. Refrains from throwing papers about.
   3. Respects the lawn.
   4. Plays on playground areas.

F. During a School-sponsored Project (Game, Dance, Party, etc.), the Good Citizen—
   1. Respects the work of artists and class decorators—protecting instead of destroying.
   2. Cheers at game—refrains from booing.
   3. Puts candy papers and cups into wastebaskets at class and public gatherings.
   4. Is courteous and hospitable to guests and chaperones at parties and dances.

G. In the Restrooms and Locker Rooms, the Good Citizen—
   1. Cares for physical facilities.

2. Keeps equipment in the same condition that he would like to find it.
3. Puts away towels and gym clothes.
4. Helps others to remember to take care of their things for their own protection.

H. Out of School, the Good Citizen—

1. Conducts himself so that his actions will bring credit to his school.
2. Represents his school to the best of his ability.
3. Becomes informed about opinions of observers.
4. Evaluates the opinion of others about his school.
5. Faces facts about his school as well as accepts compliments.

Providing opportunities for developing behavior in terms of accepted codes. After members of a group have determined the patterns of behavior that are acceptable to its purposes there remains the responsibility of helping to provide experiences that permit young people actually to practice the quality of behavior that has been sanctioned by the group.

Whereas schools often provide rules and regulations concerning the things that students *should not do,* it seems more profitable in terms of the goals of effective citizenship to help students agree upon what they *should do.* For example, communication among students during the class period frequently is forbidden unless specific permission is granted. A more desirable technique would consist of helping young people learn to communicate ideas more effectively and in ways that incorporate considerateness for others and for the goals sought by members of the group.

The problem of providing experiences that permit young people to develop behavior acceptable to their groups may be illustrated by the following incident:

One group of tenth-grade students in a social studies class agreed that as one principle of conduct members would seek to face all new situations with open-mindedness. They recognized that one quality of the democratic citizen was to be able to study a new problem without interference from preconceived attitudes, prejudices and opinions. This group decision necessitated planning by the students and their teacher that would permit members of the group opportunities to face new problems in order that they might practice the skill which they had agreed was an important aspect of group conduct. With the help of an able teacher several new experiences were deliberately planned in order to try out their ability to study problems with open minds. Some of the experiences selected included a study of the effect of price control upon household budgets and upon local business; an analysis of the city's ability to support a youth canteen; a consideration

of the relative merits of a local labor strike; and a study of the value of the city's curfew law. In each of these projects the teacher helped provide experiences, not previously incorporated in the school curriculum, that would afford opportunities for practicing the behavior agreed upon as important by members of the group.

Providing assistance in appraising the effectiveness of accepted behavior codes. Students need assistance in analyzing the effect of accepted patterns of living upon the total group and its individual members. By a technique of suggestive questioning that is as ancient as Socrates, by other applications of logic, and by indicating where reservoirs of knowledge can be found, discussion can be guided into contributive channels and learning can be directed by methods that likewise serve to mold the well adjusted individual. Young people need to evaluate their decisions relative to codes of operation not only in terms of their own attitudes toward the pattern of living accepted but also in relationship to the opinions of members of other groups within the school and with respect to the attitudes and opinions of more mature members of society, such as parents, teachers, city officials, and law enforcement officers.

The process of evaluating both the anticipated consequences and the eventual results of group action is essential if young people are to grow in their capacity to improve skill in self-direction. Ideally, discussion and other techniques of evaluation should be a continuous process with each experience that is undertaken. It should precede, accompany, and follow each new experience or step in the learning process and should be applied alike to subject-matter concepts and to individual and social aspects of participation in the learning process.

Guiding Growth Toward Independence

Middle adolescents are confronted with many problems that they find difficult to solve. Pride in their own ability to make choices and to assume responsibility for abiding by the result of their decisions may cause them to reject adult assistance, especially when they feel that their action is not approved and that such assistance comes as a reproof rather than from a sincere desire to help them. However, when the teacher has established friendly relations with students, they are likely to turn to him for counsel and help. They may only be seeking a sympathetic listener for a recital of their problems. Even so, in such a case the teacher can be helpful inasmuch as ideas that develop during oral

discussion of a problem often suggest a solution that would never occur to an individual who refuses to talk about his difficulties.

Youth in senior high school need guidance in making personal plans; in choosing careers, friends, clothes, recreation, courses in school, extraclass activities, gifts, and church affiliation. They need help with respect to habits of work, of study, of social behavior, in learning to co-operate with others within the school and the community, and in developing power in critical thinking and judgment forming. They need approval of their standards of moral integrity and assistance in continuing growth in ideals of democratic citizenship—in all areas, in fact, in which they will need to act independently when they have reached adulthood.

Guiding youth in personal planning. Because middle adolescents are well along in their transition from the dependency of childhood to the self-reliance of adulthood, they engage in much planning for their own personal activity. They devise ways in which to achieve their own desires, and how to avoid the stigma that society attaches to failures, to misfits, and to antisocial individuals. They plan their affairs, to be sure, so that "business will not interfere with pleasure" and so that out-of-school activities may have a large place in their living, but not without considerable regard for the fact that achievement in school will help them to accomplish their goals. When they find themselves disturbed because there is not time enough for all their plans to materialize so that they cannot engage satisfactorily in as many types of activities as they would like to try, then they need assistance in choosing from among many possibilities those activities that will give them greatest satisfaction.

Teachers have many opportunities to guide each individual student in making plans that are personally important to him, often uniquely so, whether it is a matter of how to find work for vacation time, to get his school work done in time to go with a group on an extended field trip, to work out a prescribed course of study in preparation for entrance to a particular college or university, or to stop school at the end of the twelfth grade in order to help with the family business. With such guidance, plans for either daily living or long-term considerations will assist youth in their formulation and execution and will enter into the student's growth toward independence. To the extent that they are made with less and less direction from others, they become one of the evidences of ability for self-direction and self-reliance.

The ability to make a budget and to live within it is one of the desirable qualities of adulthood that can be acquired gradually.

High school students may have allowances from their parents, or they may earn money after school, on Saturdays, and during the summer months. By realizing the importance of budget-making, they can derive more satisfaction from their expenditures than if they use money haphazardly and without plans or regard for relative values. Just as it is important to budget time in order to plan important activities, it is also necessary to budget money whether the amount is large or small. Of course, students will decide for themselves what is most desirable; the teacher's part in helping them to plan is to assist them to learn about the process of budgeting and to apply the procedure to their own personal accounts.

Personal planning involves not only the budgeting of money and time, but also such factors as energy, interests, ambitions, responsibilities, and associations. Young people need help during their high school years in learning how to make appropriate selections of all the many things they would like to do in order to develop schedules of daily living comensurate with personal needs and abilities.

Helping youth make choices. One of the marks of a mature adult is his ability to make choices. The senior high school student has been limited with respect to the areas in which he has been allowed freedom of choice during earlier adolescence. In junior high school, pupils are given opportunity for choosing from among several possibilities, the number depending usually on the size and policy of the school, the preferences of his parents, and organizations to which he may belong. In senior high school the number of possibilities is usually increased, and in some localities students are given the privilege of suggesting others. Choices are still confined within the framework of the school situation and in accordance with the welfare of the group, but the student has increasing opportunities for making vital choices relative to his present and future needs. Initially, at least, most youth need help in making such choices.

In choosing friends, for example, boys and girls need to realize that the bases for lasting friendships include more than personal appearance, athletic skill, and liking for a good time. With sympathetic guidance, both in individual and group experiences, young people gain a better understanding of the qualities that should be carefully considered while choosing friends. Likewise, individuals may find it necessary to make changes in personal habits or value patterns that are found to be incompatible with satisfactory friendly adjustment with some of their companions.

Usually the middle adolescent either has reached or is reaching

a stage in which he is capable of making his own decisions concerning adjustment of ideas and actions that interfere with what he considers a desirable choice. He learns to evaluate choices he already may have made, following or rejecting them in accordance with their possible contribution to his happiness and with respect to the standards of action he accepts as vital to his continued happiness. In helping young people to make wise choices, many of which are semi-permanent in character, teachers frequently can do even more to aid them than their parents, who because of emotional bias may become too urgent in their efforts to help. Parents may become too concerned when their children indicate that they are growing in the ability to make choices independently; consequently, they may unconsciously oppose this natural growth toward independence.

Permanent choices with respect to careers are often made at the senior high school level; this is the logical time for youth to be showing effective and persistent interest in the selection of a field that they intend to make their lifetime work. For a number of years to come, a majority of students will continue to separate themselves from formal education at the end of the twelfth grade, if not before that time. Consequently, they need to choose a career early enough to permit their experiences in high school to be devoted partially, at least, to preparation for entering it. Youth need considerable help to enable them to identify and evaluate the factors that are involved in the successful selection of a career. They need to study themselves to find out how certain factors affect their choice and the extent to which they, themselves, measure up to the demands of possible choices that are in line with their interests and abilities. They need to become acquainted with the nature of the work they are considering, their ability to grow in the vocation, the possibility of receiving the necessary training for it, and their chances for success and for continuance of the kind of interests that now seem attractive and important to them.

Help will be needed, too, in evaluating a choice after it has been made. Choices may be unsatisfactory because of shortcomings of the individual making them or because they do not seem likely to challenge the full capacities of the individual. In such instances, young people will need to recognize the desirability of abandoning such choices. They may need to realize that it is not a sign of weakness nor evidence of lack of independence to change after a choice has once been made if the change comes after serious consideration of reasons supporting such action. Our guidance can help students know when it is a mark of growth in inde-

pendence to *choose* to change a former choice or when it is evidence of vacillation, indifference, or a lack of faith in one's ability to make wise decisions.

It is to be expected that middle adolescents will make many changes in previous choices. Most of these will result from increased maturity and greater understanding of personal interests and capacities. They may signal an approaching awareness of the need to assume economic responsibility for a future home and family. On the other hand, they may represent signs that something is wrong, that integration is not being maintained, that individuals are out of adjustment with their time and social group. In any case, students will welcome the interested and understanding assistance of their teachers in analyzing the worth of their decisions.

Helping youth establish habits of industry. Although the high school student may have made a wise choice with respect to his career, he may not have established habits that will lead to success in preparing for, entering, or pursuing his chosen life work. Such students will need assistance in acquiring habits of industry in relation to both school and out-of-school work. These include such habits as being punctual in starting a task, planning carefully, working steadily and consistently until the task is done, co-operating with other workers, appraising results continuously and accurately, assuming responsibility for proper disposal of materials, and being honest with respect to responsibilities assumed.

Habits of study can be furthered both by making suggestions and through providing opportunities to practice various techniques appropriate to different kinds of materials and projects. How to read, to listen, to take notes, to summarize, to review, to experiment, to evaluate achievement, to measure progress, and to make a record of accomplishment—all are skills that can be encouraged under appropriate circumstances. Habits of individual or of group study can be developed more easily through co-operative effort between students and their classmates and with parents and teachers.

Transfer of work habits cannot be expected to take place automatically. Students may be able to accomplish their school work with dispatch and efficiency and yet fail to achieve similar results with work at home or in the community when engaged in regular employment. Special attention, however, needs to be given to helping students accept responsibility for industry, for promptness, for attention to quality of work, and for making habitual the activities necessary for success in out-of-school tasks.

An essential factor in establishing habits of industry is the acceptance on the part of an individual of the importance of the work to be done. School tasks that are set to keep students busy or to punish them for misbehavior act as deterrents to the formation of sound habits of work. Such assignments are done half-heartedly or under the compulsion of fear. They lack the satisfaction necessary to cause them to be dynamic forces in changing behavior. Hence, they lead to habits of divided attention, to resentment of authority, and to working under compulsion rather than to those qualities of personal industry and application that are necessary for success in practical work situations.

Assisting Young People to Plan Progress Toward Life Goals

The end of senior high school will find many young people making satisfactory progress toward the attainment of such life goals as choosing a vocation or profession, planning for economic independence, establishing a home, accepting social responsibility, and adopting individual patterns of values. For others, not even at the end of junior college will progress toward many of these goals have been initiated. Without help and guidance, many young people delay too long the identification and selection of life goals that are compatible with their personal interests and capacities. A few may never bring themselves to undertake the process.

General education contributes to life adjustment. Perhaps no personal goal is more important than that which has been called life adjustment.[10] Although this is the responsibility of both specialized education as well as general education, in the senior high school the major responsibility falls upon a program of general education. Many students may need help in realizing that general education is necessary for all, that it, as well as more highly specialized vocational preparation, contributes to the achievement of life adjustment. This fact can be readily understood by considering that the necessary kinds of adjustments include ability to read critically, to recognize biased points of view, to discriminate between propaganda and information, to listen understandingly to radio lecturers, analysts, and commentators, to know what to accept and what to reject, to keep from being deluded by commercial

[10] This problem is of such concern that in 1947 the United States Commissioner of Education created a special commission to study the type of education best adapted to the furtherance of life adjustment. Since the appointment of this commission, similar committees have been formulated in several states.

or other partisan teaching, to express ideas clearly, and to participate effectively in civic affairs.

General education is not directly concerned with preparation for specific jobs, nor does it attempt to develop any particular work skill. It does, however, help young people learn the importance of work in our society, the dignity of honest effort, and the kinds of work that must be done for the functioning of our economic life. It seeks to develop attitudes and habits of doing well whatever one attempts, of fair treatment of those with whom we work, and respect for those whose work differs from ours. General education strives to help students establish general habits that are applicable to such work situations as promptness, attention to detail, care in handling materials, skill in human relationships, and willingness to work co-operatively for the good of a group. Adjustment to the world of work is reached not through learning a particular trade nor preparing for a specific vocation, but through experiences in the broad area of general education.

In the fields of recreation, politics, community service, and social life, general education trains youth to make adjustments and progress toward goals that will be realized in later life. A partial adjustment is made at the time of senior high school through opportunities provided for participation in activities that contribute to these various fields. Information and firsthand experiences gained through general education concerning people and their relationships, economic, political, cultural, and ethical, help youth to begin progress toward life goals.

Beginning limited specialization. Although general education is the major responsibility of the senior high school, specialization is provided at this level for a limited number of students and for all youth limited specialization is begun.

Young people who leave school before the junior college level is reached, especially those who find it necessary to begin part-time work during their senior high school years, should be given training that will be helpful during their initial employment at unskilled and semi-skilled jobs. In some communities where junior college education is not available, the senior high school will continue to provide much of the specialized training for business, trades and industries, home economics, building trades, and agriculture—training that more properly should be offered during the thirteenth and fourteenth school years.

We have the responsibility of providing all youth with guidance and experiences in the elementary levels of specialization. For students who plan to enter the professions or the skilled trades,

courses in mathematics, science, and skill subjects represent first steps in specialization. Those who teach such courses face the responsibility of making two types of contributions: (a) they should be taught in such manner that the experiences provided students make a direct contribution to the development of values, attitudes, understandings, and habits basic to social competency; and (b) students should be helped to begin mastering the skills necessary for continued specialization directed toward a particular profession or trade that they are most likely and best suited to enter.

Appraising aptitude for life goals. As young people make choices relative to life goals, they carry on simultaneously under our guidance the task of appraising the degree to which they possess appropriate aptitude for the goals selected. One of the important contributions that can be made to the growth of middle adolescents is that of helping them determine whether they possess the kinds of aptitude needed for success in professions, in higher education, in particular fields of specialization, or in specific skilled trades.

Important in the process of helping youth to evaluate their aptitude for life goals are the tryout experiences that are provided during the later years of the junior high school and throughout the senior high school and, for some, even in the junior college. Such experiences include courses designed to encourage exploration in a field of activity. Students are encouraged to elect courses of this type in order to discover whether they possess interest or capacity for the types of work and study necessary to pursue related vocations and professions. Through school clubs, students are afforded another opportunity to gain acquaintance with fields of knowledge and their own interest in them. Actual work experience is also coming to be considered in many schools an important aspect of the tryout experiences provided youth.[11] In the past such experiences have generally been provided for a small group of students who are enrolled in business and vocational curricula through courses known as *distributive education* or *co-*

[11] Much has been written in recent years about the merits of work experience for vocational guidance purposes, for the value in terms of initial placement in industry and business, and in terms of its value as a maturing experience. Helpful references to this topic include the following:

American Association of School Administrators, *The Expanding Role of Education*. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1948, Chapter VII, pp. 147–176.

Harold J. Dillon, *Work Experience in Secondary Education*. New York: National Child Labor Committee, Publication No. 394, 1946, 96 pp.

Educational Policies Commission, *Education for All American Youth*. Washington, D. C.: National Educational Association, 1944, 421 pp.

operative business. Increasingly, however, it is suggested that *all* students should be provided opportunities to learn through actual work experiences.

Specialized courses in the senior high school afford an important means of helping students discover aptitude for life goals. Teachers of geometry, chemistry, foreign language, and vocational fields need to give careful consideration to the guidance function they can perform as they help students evaluate their aptitude for continued study in these fields.

Summary

The senior high school, with its load of inherited purposes related principally to college preparation, faces greater difficulty than either the junior high school or junior college in providing methods of teaching adapted to the needs of youth and to the social functions of public secondary education.

Helping middle adolescents maintain personal integration as they strive to adjust to the standards, demands, and responsibilities of their group is one of our major responsibilities in teaching senior high school students. First of all, students need help in adjusting to adult standards. Then they need experiences that help them develop interest in and abilities for contributing to the welfare of their groups. Involved also are adjustments both at home and school that contribute to the security and concern of youth during their middle adolescent years.

During middle adolescence boys and girls seek ways of discovering whether they are making normal and natural growth. They show increased concern for the opinions of the opposite sex and for the effect of their personalities upon others. In helping youth to understand themselves and their adjustment, it is important to remember that a given picture of adjustment taken at a specific stage of development may not necessarily indicate trends in total growth. There is need for providing many opportunities by means of individual counselling, small group discussions, testing, and interpretation of observed behavior that will contribute to helping students to understand their own adjustments to each other.

During middle adolescence young people respond readily to opportunities co-operatively to develop behavior codes by which they are willing to abide. Examples of statements of principles of group living developed by high school youth reveal the seriousness with which they undertake such a procedure. After members of a group have developed behavior codes, we face the responsi-

bility of helping to provide varied experiences that will afford them an opportunity to "try out" their abilities in living up to their agreements.

The guidance of youth as they grow toward independence involves helping them with personal planning, encouraging them to make choices, and to explore and to experiment in terms of choices made. The general educational program as well as initial types of specialization provided in the senior high school are designed to further life adjustment.

Related Experiences

1. If available, arrange for a showing of the following films:

Maintaining Classroom Discipline (14 minutes: sound). Distributed by McGraw-Hill Test Film, 330 West 42nd St., New York, N. Y. Correlated with Raleigh Schorling's *Student Teaching,* this film illustrates both desirable and undesirable ways of helping adolescent youth adjust to the conditions of their environments.

Are You Popular? (15 minutes: sound). Distributed by Coronet Films, Glenview, Illinois. This film illustrates a type of visual aids available for adolescents. It shows a boy and a girl who are going out for a good time. They're popular and welcome in any group because they have developed friendliness, consideration of others, and are interested in the other fellow. The film shows vividly important teenage social successes and failures and presents a worthwhile guide to boy-girl relationships.

2. Plan for members of your group to interview three senior high school teachers in an effort to discover the factors that tend to prevent them from developing the type of teaching they would like to provide for middle adolescents. You might ask such questions as, Do you feel impelled to prepare students for college entrance? Will the study of the courses you teach help students think better in other fields?

3. Ask two or three senior high school students to tell you how they feel about accepting the responsibilities of adults. Try to record, after the interviews, the verbatim remarks of those interviewed in order that you may share them with other members of your teacher-education group.

4. See if you can find additional examples of behavior agreements reached by students and their teachers in nearby secondary schools. Analyze the points emphasized by students in such codes.

5. Describe to your group your own method of adjusting to established behavior codes at the time you reached middle adolescence.

6. Study the cumulative record of several students in a nearby sec-

ondary school to observe the types of plans that have been made by students. Note the number of changes in plans.

7. Analyze the extent to which your own secondary education contributed to your life adjustment. Compare your experiences with those of other members of the group.

Suggested Readings

ALBERTY, HAROLD, *Reorganizing the High-School Curriculum.* New York: The Macmillan Company, 1947, 458 pp.

American Council on Education, *Education for All American Youth.* Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1944, 421 pp.

BLOS, PETER, *The Adolescent Personality; A Study of Individual Behavior.* New York: D. Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1941, 517 pp.

Educational Policies Commission, *Learning the Ways of Democracy.* Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1940, 486 pp.

Faculty of The University School, *How Children Develop.* Columbus, Ohio: College of Education, The Ohio State University, 1946, 79 pp.

FLEEGE, URBAN H., *Self-Revelation of the Adolescent Boy.* Milwaukee, Wis.: The Bruce Publishing Company, 1945, 384 pp.

HOPKINS, L. THOMAS, *Integration: Its Meaning and Application.* New York: D. Appleton-Century-Crofts Company, 1937, 315 pp.

JONES, HAROLD ELLIS, *Development in Adolescence: Approaches to the Study of the Individual.* New York: D. Appleton-Century-Crofts Company, 1943, 166 pp.

National Society for the Study of Education, *Adolescence.* Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1944, 358 pp.

NEWMAN, FRANCES BURKS, *The Adolescent in Social Groups.* Stanford, California: Stanford University Press, Applied Psychology Monographs, No. 9, American Psychological Association, 1946, 94 pp.

Chapter 19

HELPING YOUTH ACHIEVE FULL ADULT STATUS

Characterize the role of the junior college in secondary education. . . . Describe the functions of the junior college. . . . How have terminal and foundational education seemed to be in conflict in the junior college? . . . What factors tend to inhibit or facilitate the development of appropriate teaching procedures at this level? . . . What are the qualities that we normally expect to be displayed by well-adjusted adults? . . . Indicate the nature of full independence. . . . At what stages do young people make and verify life plans? . . . What significance is coming to be attached to work experience as an aspect of junior college education? . . . Explain the relationship between citizenship responsibilities and national and world governments. . . . In what ways should our teaching be concerned with helping youth plan for continuing their growth? . . . Describe methods of teaching that are best adapted to the junior college level of education.

For young people who develop normally, the goal of achieving independence is completed during the period of late adolescence or, on the basis of normal educational progress, at the junior college level. Many boys and girls will have become independent before reaching their thirteenth and fourteenth years of schooling. At this stage individuals usually prove capable of managing their own affairs. A number of students will not achieve independence until after the period designated as later adolescence; a few may never mature to the extent that they are efficiently self-motivated and self-directed. Youth in this latter category will continue to rely upon others for incentives to action and direction of their activities. For a majority of young people, however, the latter part of the junior college period is reached about the same time that full independence is achieved. The extent to which *all* achieve

independence depends largely, however, upon the quality of the experiences in which they have participated.

The Role of the Junior College in Secondary Education

Although the first public junior college still in existence was established in Joliet, Illinois, in 1902 (less than fifty years ago), the growth of this type of institution has been phenomenal during the past thirty years. In 1920 there were 165 institutions that might be characterized as junior colleges. By 1947 this number had increased to approximately 650. During that year, these institutions had enrolled 400,000 students, 75 per cent of whom were in attendance at junior colleges that were publicly supported.[1]

Functions of the junior college. Historically, three major functions have been ascribed to the junior college. First, it has been charged with the responsibility of democratizing education, that is, making it available to all youth, beyond the traditional twelfth and final year of the senior high school. Secondly, the junior college, from its beginning, has assumed the college-preparatory function. Thirdly, the provision of terminal education has increasingly become recognized as a major function. These three functions, supported by leaders in higher education who insisted that the thirteenth and fourteenth years of schooling constituted secondary rather than higher education, have contributed to the establishment of the point of view that the junior college represents the crowning unit in our system of free public secondary education.

Certain principles offer direction to the development of the public junior college in the United States. In a real sense, such principles suggest a frame of reference in which upper-level secondary school teaching should be developed. In Illinois a committee of educators interested in junior college policies developed the following principles as expressive of purposes for this level of instructions.[2]

1. The public junior college should be an upward extension of secondary education.
2. As the topmost unit of the secondary school span, the public

[1] Junior College Committee of the Illinois Secondary School Principals' Association, *The Role of the Public Junior College in Illinois.* Urbana, Illinois: University of Illinois, Educational Research Circular No. 58, Vol. 44, March 13, 1947, p. 8.

[2] As developed by the Junior College Committee of the Illinois Secondary School Principals' Association: *The Role of the Public Junior College in Illinois,* (A. W. Clevenger, chairman). Urbana, Illinois: University of Illinois Bulletin, Vol. 44, No. 43, March 13, 1947, p. 7.

junior college should serve *all* normal youth who wish to continue their formal education through grade 14.

3. In order to make it possible for all normal youth to attend, the public junior college must be a tuition-free institution.

4. In order to meet the educational needs of all normal youth, the program of the public junior college must be geared both to the common and to the specialized needs of youth. This means that there must be provided:

   a. Commonly needed general education for all youth.
   b. Vocational training in the semi-professions that qualifies terminal students for immediate entrance into the occupational world.
   c. College-preparatory courses that qualify college-bound students for junior standing in standard colleges and universities.
   d. Adequate guidance and other necessary personnel services for all youth.

5. The public junior college should be designed as a community institution; it should provide whatever adult education of less than university grade the public may desire and should serve as the principal cultural center of the community.

Terminal versus foundational education in the junior college. Like the senior high school, the junior college has not escaped the conflict between terminal or vocational education and instruction designed to prepare a foundation in academic skills and cultural background as preparation for additional formal education. Like the senior high school, the junior college has tended to emphasize preparation for advanced study in four-year colleges to the exclusion of terminal education designed to help young people who will not continue their formal education but who likewise need training that will enable them to secure and hold successfully positions in business and industry and function effectively as citizens.

Although some junior colleges are demonstrating that the needs of many of their terminal students can be met adequately [3] by means of teaching procedures and curricular experiences, a study of this problem in 1941 showed that whereas 75 per cent of all junior college students were "terminal" in terms of their plans, only 34 per cent could be regarded as "terminal" in respect to being enrolled in a course that was likely to qualify them for employment. In the State of Illinois 71 per cent of the students enrolled in junior colleges were expecting to terminate their formal education with the completion of the junior college, yet only 17 per cent were enrolled in courses that could be considered to pro-

[3] Walter C. Eells, *The Present Status of Junior-College Terminal Education.* Washington, D. C.: American Association of Junior Colleges, 1941, 340 pp.

vide real terminal training.[4] Reasons for these discrepancies between student needs and junior college enrollment may be listed as follows:[5]

1. Many junior colleges offer little or no work of a terminal vocational nature.
2. Some junior college teachers and administrators are striving to develop their institutions into four-year colleges; consequently, they see their function as that of raising academic standards to levels that are traditionally recognized for freshman and sophomore college courses.
3. Parents and students alike frequently think of the junior college as having no important function other than that of preparing students for the upper division in four-year colleges and universities.
4. Students frequently feel that they will be stigmatized if they enroll in terminal courses.
5. Many senior high schools have developed excellent terminal vocational courses with a result that students who wish to take such work are not attracted to the junior college by an offering of a similar nature, or they take other types of courses in junior college.

Arguments for terminal education in the public junior college are based upon recognition that, with the increasing age of entry into gainful employment, youth are not being assimilated into the world of work until about the age of twenty or twenty-one years—the normal age for completing the fourteenth year of schooling. Likewise, many of the occupations open to young people are of a semi-professional nature for which preparation can be obtained in two years of junior college training. These occupations include such fields as agriculture, photography, drama and speech, interior decoration, floriculture, radio, drafting, art metal, air conditioning, welding, aviation, general engineering, electrical engineering, auto mechanics, medical and dental secretarial work, physical therapy, and public health and sanitation work.

Obviously one of the first responsibilities of those who choose to teach in the junior college is to be aware of terminal vocational needs of a large majority of students who will move directly from this institution into jobs and the full responsibilities of adult citizenship. We cannot delegate this important responsibility to

[4] Junior College Committee of the Illinois Secondary School Principals' Association, *op. cit.*, p. 30.

[5] Based upon the report of the Junior College Committee of the Illinois Secondary School Principals' Association, *op. cit.*

those teachers who teach courses labeled as terminal. Every junior college teacher needs to assume personal responsibility for this function regardless of the subject area in which he teaches. The teacher of English, for example, can provide numerous opportunities to help these young people learn skills of written and oral communication that will be demanded by the occupations that they are planning to enter. Those who teach mathematics can help students perfect number skills needed for success in particular vocations. We must come to think of terminal education not only in terms of vocational courses offered but with respect to the adaptation of all educational experiences in the junior college to the terminal needs of the students.

Two groups of students who attend junior college include those who will finish their formal schooling at the end of this two-year period and a smaller group that will continue toward professional or vocational education in four-year institutions but who, in the meantime, desire to follow their interest in literary, musical, artistic, or other pursuits in specialized schools or departments. Approximately one-fourth of the students now enrolled will not be able to complete their training in junior college as such schools are now organized. Not over half of all youth who reach the stage of later adolescence will find anything approaching fully satisfactory educational experiences in the junior college as it now exists. It can be expected, however, that as junior college teachers increase their understanding of the role of the junior college as the crowning unit of the secondary school and develop methods of teaching compatible with this function and with the nature of later adolescents, an increasing number of young adults will elect to continue their education in such institutions throughout the thirteenth and fourteenth years.

Factors That Affect Teaching in the Junior College

In undertaking the development of teaching compatible to the needs of later adolescents and the purposes of the junior college, one becomes immediately aware of certain factors that tend to inhibit and others that offer support to the process.

Factors that inhibit the development of teaching adapted to student needs and institutional purposes. On the negative side it has been found that the improvement of teaching in the junior college may be limited by factors such as those described below.

1. Lack of professional preparation of staff members. In many junior colleges, teachers are not required to achieve the standards

of professional preparation required of teachers in junior and senior high schools. In such institutions, the qualifications for teaching are found to be more closely akin to those accepted for teachers in four-year colleges and universities. Emphasis in preparation for teaching is upon the mastering of a subject-matter field to the exclusion of learning to understand the needs, capacities, characteristics, differences, attitudes, and motives of later adolescents. In some junior colleges individuals, with baccalaureate and master's degrees in subject-matter fields, who have no professional preparation for teaching, are still employed as instructors. It is encouraging, however, to find that certain universities are now offering a program of teacher education for junior college teachers.

2. *Devotion to process of selection.* Many endorse the responsibility of the junior college for selecting students who have ability to succeed in upper divisions of four-year institutions. This point of view is likely to lead to efforts to establish artificial standards of accomplishment in terms of our concept of "college grade" work. It serves the purpose of discouraging or eliminating students who have less ability to cope with situations that require verbal and other abstract forms of skill and students who desire to explore or develop new interests in fields that require other types of ability.

3. *Concept of "college teaching."* Having experienced the lecture method almost exclusively during collegiate days, many persons assume that whereas other methods may be suitable to younger children who lack the maturity and motivation of junior college students, the lecture method is the most respectable as well as the most suitable for use in junior college. Efforts to improve teaching at this level, therefore, are likely to be devoted too extensively to attempts to develop skill in lecturing.

4. *Ambition of staff members to move to four-year colleges.* A related factor that inhibits the improvement of teaching at the junior college level is found in the desire of many teachers to find employment in four-year institutions. Quite naturally, such teachers are reluctant to devote time and energy to studying the needs of later adolescents and the functions that the junior college is supposed to serve.

Factors favorable to the improvement of teaching in the junior college. Almost all of the negative influences are related, in one way or another, to a concept of this institution as the lower level of the four-year college or as a preparatory institution for upper divisions of institutions of higher learning. Fortunately, there are favorable factors that tend to offset these points of view. Factors that support improvement of teaching at this level tend to be re-

lated to the role of the junior college as the final stage of secondary education, to the quality of those teachers who tend to migrate to junior college jobs, and to the higher maturity level of the junior college student.

1. The experimental role of the junior college. Historically, the junior college is a young institution without many of the limiting traditions that hamper improvement of the senior high school. From its beginning, although limited by its allegiance to four-year institutions, the junior college has assumed the role of an experimental institution. In developing both terminal and general education as well as part-time education for adults, it has pioneered new fields and explored different techniques of curriculum organization and teaching method.

2. Frequently junior college teachers have had previous experience at other levels of instruction. Junior colleges have attracted junior and senior high school teachers with superior professional preparation and successful experience. These teachers, for the most part, have earned graduate degrees in fields closely associated with professional specializations that are related to their teaching assignments at this higher secondary level. Many of these teachers have had a type of training and experience that has particularly fitted them for studying the needs of students and adapting teaching to individual differences.

3. Better teachers migrate to the junior college. The practice of selecting teachers from the ranks of teachers in other secondary schools has led to a migratory trend of better teachers from junior and senior high schools into the junior college. Junior college officials have learned that when they employ teachers who "want to teach in college" they can attract only those who cannot find positions in four-year institutions. On the other hand, when they employ teachers from other levels of the secondary school they are able to attract the best. This is a factor in favor of the junior college in terms of developing teaching compatible to the learning needs and social functions of the institution.

4. Junior college students are more mature. Increased maturity of junior college students contributes to the development of teaching procedures compatible with the goals of secondary education. At the stage of later adolescence, youth has "settled down" considerably as compared to its patterns of behavior in earlier years. For the most part, young people at this level have already established their security within peer-groups and normally have come to recognize their needs and personal life goals. Most of them are attending school under their own volition. Later

adolescents recognize the importance of improving their skill in self-direction and self-discipline; consequently, teachers, unless they choose otherwise, are almost automatically placed in a position of guiding, rather than directing, learning.

5. *Student goals are imminent and real.* Confronted with the task of assuming full adult responsibility—economically, socially, and with respect to family living and civic duties—older youth gain increased motivation to achieve personal and group goals. Junior college teachers find it a simple matter to help students identify goals that form the basis for intensive efforts to learn. Many students will already be earning all or part of their living. As a result, they appreciate what it means to sacrifice time and money to further one's education. Some will be married, whereas others will be anticipating marriage. These will be motivated to work for others as well as themselves. Youth, during the junior college years, stand upon the threshold of active citizenship responsibilities. They gain increased incentive to learn from the knowledge that soon after graduation their ideas, contributions, and civic participation will help to determine the future of their cities, states, and nation.

6. *The junior college curriculum can be closely related to community life.* Youth readily accept school experiences and teaching procedures that are concerned with information, values, skills, appreciations, and understandings that they recognize as closely related to life in their communities. Terminal courses, in particular, generate self-direction and individual effort. The junior college is fortunate in that its curriculum is closely related to adult activities. If the mistake is not made of continuing to emphasize, at the junior college level, the practice of teaching subject matter that students will need "in the future," teaching can be planned to capitalize upon interests in community living by developing curricular experiences directed toward the solution of real life problems.

Facilitating the Transition to Adulthood

The junior college teacher will be concerned with the primary responsibility of helping youth to establish full independence, accept full citizenship responsibilities, and make plans for continued growth and participation in social action.

Characteristic transitions during adolescence. The following analysis represents a summary of the characteristic transitions through which young people pass during adolescence. It may be

CHARACTERISTIC TRANSITIONS DURING ADOLESCENCE

Characteristic	*Early Adolescence* 12–14 years (Junior High School)	*Middle Adolescence* 15–17 years (Senior High School)	*Late Adolescence* 18–20 years (Junior or Community College)
PHYSICAL GROWTH	Onset of pubescence brings appearance of secondary sex characteristics —pubic hair, voice change, rapid genital growth, formation of breasts, and beginning of menstruation. Marked changes in glandular secretions occur. Growth in bodily extremities, girth, facial features, and muscles may be rapid and uneven. Skin disorders, such as acne, become a serious problem for some. Differences in size of physical stature grow more pronounced. Girls, on the average, may become taller, heavier, and more agile than boys for a time. Sluggishness, poor posture, over-	Increased interest in maintaining healthy bodies develops. Boys especially desire to be strong and manly. Resistance to suggestions of parents in health matters is paralleled by personal efforts to choose correct foods and to build good health habits. Increase in appetites noticeable in both boys and girls. Stability in both physical and organic growth is usually achieved by all except the very late developers. Heart growth may lag behind basic structural and arterial development thereby making possible heart strain and overwork evidenced by sluggishness and early fatigue or faint-	Basal pulse rate, which decreased rather continuously throughout adolescence, reaches a normal rate for adults. Cystolic blood pressure, while continuing a gradual increase, is higher on the average for boys than for girls. Girls endeavor to develop and maintain physical attractiveness through following diets and by exercising. Maximum height and weight are reached as secretion of gonadal (sex) hormones suppress production of pituitary growth hormones. Mature sex characteristics are established. Menstrual cycles are becoming established for girls, although those late in developing may not normally begin menstruation until this time. Boys begin shaving

	stimulation—all will be in evidence unproportionately as compared with other stages of growth. Obesity is a problem for some boys and girls at this time.	ing, dizziness, and heart fluctuations in others. Co-ordination improves as does posture, figure, and physical poise, although the tendency to compensate for abnormal physical development —smallness, tallness, obesity—by exhibiting aggressive tendencies is observable. Increase in shoulder and pelvic breadth and size of calf and arm occur during this stage of growth. Boys overtake girls in size of physical stature, co-ordination, agility, and reaction time.	regularly and find their sexual maturity characterized by the experience of nocturnal discharge of seminal fluid. Manual strength and capacity for endurance become pronounced.
EMOTIONAL FACTORS	A significant number experience fears and confusion relative to the onset of puberty and its accompanying sexual development and irregular growth. Self-consciousness and sometimes shame accompany the appearance of secondary sex characteristics, par-	Concern over personal normality often causes anxiety and lack of confidence. Insecurities develop as home status is sacrificed for relationships with peer-groups. Conflict frequently develops with	For those who develop late, distress over size, physical maturity, skin eruptions, as well as adjustments to more mature peer-group members, continues as a source of emotional disturbance. Failure to find security in an age-group of one's choice and to estab-

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CHARACTERISTIC TRANSITIONS DURING ADOLESCENCE (*continued*)

Characteristic	*Early Adolescence* 12–14 years (Junior High School)	*Middle Adolescence* 15–17 years (Senior High School)	*Late Adolescence* 18–20 years (Junior or Community College)
EMOTIONAL FACTORS (*continued*)	ticularly when their nature and purpose are not understood. Sexual tensions are released through masturbation as well as through healthy, vigorous play. Family security and status, although still important, are often disregarded for short intervals on an experimental basis with the resulting effects of fears and guilt feelings. Adjustments with others of the same sex and with members of the opposite sex present new problems. "Crushes" develop: first, for adults of the opposite sex; second, for agemates of the same sex; and, third, with increasing maturity, for agemates of the opposite sex.	parents relative to choice of activities, conduct, and personal habits. This may result in open revolt by both boys and girls not only against parental control but with respect to other adult regulations as well. Fears of losing peer-group status, of abnormal physical growth—tallness, obesity, form—of becoming unattractive in facial features, of the effect of acne, bodily odors, often cause continuing emotional disturbances. Anxiety over pubescent developments—the onset of menstruation, pubic hair, development of genitals, is serious for many youth. Adjustments to members of the opposite sex, keeping the first girl or boy friend, initial love affairs, and	lish normal relations with members of the opposite sex may contribute to serious maladjustments. Increased sensitivity to the attitudes of others, including those of adults, may be the source of frequent periods of unhappiness. Conflicts related to differing social standards, religious principles, and moral customs may reach serious proportions at this time. Concerns develop with respect to appropriate behavior between the sexes. Many inwardly fear the consequences of activities engaged in by their peers (i.e., necking, drinking, smoking), yet they feel compelled to "go along" with their friends. Choosing, winning, and holding

	Emotions themselves become more complicated and complex at this time.	*in some cases guilt feelings and fears resulting from sexual promiscuity—all are sources of emotional unrest at this time.*	permanent sweethearts results in considerable anxiety for many of the more mature. Worry over school work, low marks, and vocational choice as well as the acceptance of adult responsibilities is common at this age.
MENTAL DEVELOPMENT	Widely divergent maturation patterns of mental growth become evident during the early stages of adolescence. Correlations between mental test scores at ages seven and sixteen have been found to be as low as .50—too low for accurate prediction. It seems unwise, therefore to attempt to predict accurately specific mental capacity for eight or ten years hence. Mental growth adheres more closely to chronological age; consequently it is less sensitive to physical growth and sexual maturity. Although girls precede boys through early pubescent development and are taller and	Some who show below-average mentality are merely temporarily low because of slow maturation rate for intel'ectual interests or because of inhibiting factors experienced in their home environments or with respect to health conditions. No appreciable differences in mental growth patterns or in amount of measurable ability has been found for boys and girls. This finding is in contradiction with the popular notion that girls have the advantage intellectually during middle adolescence. The more mature physically have been found to exhibit small but	Rapid increase in measurable intelligence levels off to an upward trend that is slower and more gradual. Variations in mental growth curves as compared to each other tend to decrease somewhat and to assume a stable relationship. Increased effort to discover meaning, evidence, abstractions, and to interpret data without bias can be expected at this age. Skill in rational inquiry and logical organization of ideas is increased.

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CHARACTERISTIC TRANSITIONS DURING ADOLESCENCE (*continued*)

Characteristic	*Early Adolescence* 12–14 years (Junior High School)	*Middle Adolescence* 15–17 years (Senior High School)	*Late Adolescence* 18–20 years (Junior or Community College)
MENTAL DEVELOPMENT (*continued*)	heavier than boys from ages 12 to 14, on the average, they do not reveal a significantly higher mental capacity at this time. Slight increase in mental growth curves sometimes begins during this period, but the popular notion that growth in mental ability during adolescence is highly accelerated is unfounded. Developing curiosity about facts that have practical application, youth demonstrate little concern about basic causes and relationships. This age is less mature in terms of visual memory as compared to general intelligence.	significant superiority. Mental growth continues a gradual upward trend uncharacterized by the rapid spurts and imbalances found in physical growth. Increasing desire to discover underlying principles and relationships is frequently shown. Reasoning power lags significantly as contrasted with verbal ability. Tests of intelligence reveal wide differences in the scores of various traits that make up the total score or intelligence quotient. General intelligence scores may remain constant while marked changes occur in factors of intelligence. Desire to explore many intellectual interests increases.	Tests show that verbal memory ability tends to increase as compared to general intelligence. Changes in the nature of organization of mental ability tend to increase with age; intelligence becomes more specific in nature either from the type of specialization engaged in by youth or as a result of native capacity. Many authorities believe the latter is a contributing factor. Oral communication is preferred, especially by boys, to writing.

		Interest in the concrete still overshadows concern for abstractions with most youth.	
SOCIAL ADJUSTMENTS	Desire to achieve adult status leads to imitations of accepted "heroes" in manner, dress, vocabulary, cosmetics, and attitude. Mixed feelings of dependence upon family status and security and upon newly created relationships with peer-groups frequently lead to conflicts that are not easily understood or analyzed by the early adolescent. Experimentation with various "roles" and social personalities to discover status is common. Friendships tend to shift rapidly from group to group as acceptance is being established. By the end of this stage of growth somewhat permanent cliques are being established, based usually upon skill and physical and social activities.	Although certain security is still achieved through adherence to adult standards, vigorous efforts are normally made to establish relationships with age-groups that set up their own conduct codes. Conflicts with parents are intense and numerous, although usually short in duration as middle adolescents re-establish their security within the home after periods of disagreement and unhappiness. Revolt against parental authority may lead eventually to dependence upon other adults—teachers, ministers, priests, relatives, and older friends—temporarily for security. Adherence to the mores and conduct practices of age-groups becomes the principal source of direction for many.	Normally, dependence upon parents for security is replaced by full establishment of relationships within a peer-culture. Although conflicts with parents tend to decrease, youth may feel embarrassment and shame of parental attitudes and customs. Personal criteria for the selection of friends and group associations as well as "dates" become fairly well established. Status within groups becomes relatively fixed for most youth. Group members frequently are more tolerant in accepting others into membership than are younger boys and girls. Associations within the same sex are usually dominated by plans for

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CHARACTERISTIC TRANSITIONS DURING ADOLESCENCE (*continued*)

Characteristic	*Early Adolescence* 12–14 years (Junior High School)	*Middle Adolescence* 15–17 years (Senior High School)	*Late Adolescence* 18–20 years (Junior or Community College)
SOCIAL ADJUSTMENTS (*continued*)	Permanent friendships are beginning to develop. Groups of early adolescents may either conform to social codes or develop into antisocial gangs. Aggressive or submissive behavior may result from rebuffs experienced in attempts to gain acceptance in age-groups. Associations with members of the opposite sex are sought on an experimental basis, except for the less mature who tend to shy away from such experiences. All are likely to feel insecure and awkward in these relationships. "Showing off" and displaying rough physical contact—pushing, shoving, tripping—spring from the desire to	Cliques are formed that may strive to maintain exclusiveness by perpetuating various forms of prejudice. They may attempt to contradict the accepted codes of other age-groups as well as of adult standards. Efforts to follow adult patterns in relationship to experiences with the opposite sex are usually in evidence. Girls exhibit greater social maturity, on the average, than do boys; consequently, they tend to cut across age groupings to date older boys. Group loyalties grow strong as do drives to excel in activities (i.e., dancing, athletic skills, singing, witty repartee) approved by the group. Practically all girls are or become	mixed experiences. For example, a girls' organization may devote its efforts to developing in its members those qualities that make them more desirable to boys. Major activities may be related to sponsoring mixed parties and dances. Financial status, family background, religious beliefs, racial inheritance—all may become important factors in the development of self-confidence and the achievement of acceptance within an age-group. Boys and girls are equally concerned about developing socially acceptable behavior. Both admire "good looks," attractive dress and grooming. Yet members of both sexes are beginning to place emphasis upon such qualities as genuineness, tolerance, morality, wholesomeness, intelligence,

attract attention from members of the opposite sex, although early adolescents may not fully understand or admit their motive.

Displays of affection between members of the same and opposite sex through physical means—hand holding, walking arm in arm—are evidences of growing desire for affection.

Experimentation with sexual intimacies may be carried on during this period in response to concern over sexual adequacy and as a result of curiosity.

interested in co-recreational and mixed social activities, in dates, parties, and dancing. A substantial minority of boys do not reach a stage of equal concern for activities with girls until later adolescence.

The more mature boys may begin "going steady" with their girl friends.

Frequently, "personal prestige" is an important factor in selection of members of the opposite sex for companions; thus star athletes, girls with accomplishments, and students prominent in school affairs have the advantage.

Girls prefer boys who are handsome, courteous, good dancers, and clever, while boys choose girls mostly for their "good looks," including attractive form, and general female characteristics (i.e., charm, attitudes of dependence, and ability to make them feel at ease).

agreeableness, democraticness, and good taste.

In the final stage of later adolescence youth tend to test peer-group mores and ideals with those maintained by adults whom they admire. On occasions where conflicts are found to exist, individuals may choose to follow the codes maintained by their adult friends.

Social attitudes and relationships with people are becoming stable and are more frequently based upon evidence obtained through a scientific approach (e.g., in electing leaders consideration is given to "who will do the best job" rather than to "who is most popular").

The choosing of a wife or husband becomes a motivating factor in relationships between sexes. A girl who has "gone steady" with one boy may begin dating others upon discovering that he is not yet ready to consider marriage.

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CHARACTERISTIC TRANSITIONS DURING ADOLESCENCE (*continued*)

Characteristic	*Early Adolescence* 12–14 years (Junior High School)	*Middle Adolescence* 15–17 years (Senior High School)	*Late Adolescence* 18–20 years (Junior or Community College)
SOCIAL ADJUSTMENTS (*continued*)		Experimental sexual behavior with members of the opposite sex increases. "Necking parties" are engaged in normally by two or three couples in the same automobile or home. Associations with peers are influenced by personal ambitions, attitudes toward each other, and, at times, by somewhat superficial concepts of acceptable qualities in others.	Differences in maturity between boys and girls have largely disappeared. Disappointment in experiences with members of the opposite sex may cause boys or girls to revert to constant associations with members of their own sex, in periods of "woman (or man) hating." Although double-dating may still be popular, experiences in prolonged "love making" are increasingly reserved for private indulgence. Whereas during previous stages of adolescence help from parents and other adults has been resented, typically, the more adjusted and some who are unadjusted readily seek guidance related to social problems, including dates, parties, marriage.

GROWTH IN INDEPENDENCE	*Increasingly, early adolescents need* money to satisfy their growing social and recreational needs. As a result, their economic dependence upon their parents is normally supplemented with earnings from doing chores at home, carrying papers, cutting lawns, or other part-time work. Drive toward independence is usually evidenced by attempts to regulate personal daily schedules, choose friends and activities, digress from established customs, and control personal budgets. Resistance to help in matters of dress, grooming, and health habits represents further evidence of this drive. Numerous activities and experiences are initiated, many of which are not carried out. Conflicts with age-mates may result from efforts to dominate others—often mistakenly assumed by youth who have experienced such treat-	*Most youth still depend upon* parents for financial support; a few, however, support themselves or contribute to the economic needs of the home. Need for money prompts many to seek work and causes others to seek to satisfy their wants through unapproved means—stealing. Insistence upon choosing clothes, forms of and equipment for recreation, conduct patterns, and daily activities is very much in evidence. Vocational choices or educational plans related thereto are considered with parents only with reluctance. Resistance and revolt against parental direction is common even for well-adjusted youth. Ability and desire to share with others—even with parents—the process of decision making repre-	*Many youth have established almost* complete economic independence, through part-time and summer employment. Selection of employment often is based upon immediate benefits with little concern for long-term advantages. Evidences of desire to offer protection to family members can be found. Critical personal evaluation is becoming a habit. Acceptance of social responsibility is performed because of consciously accepted social values rather than for personal gain. Feelings of inadequacy illustrate that realistic appraisal is being made of the future. Co-operation with others is now

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CHARACTERISTIC TRANSITIONS DURING ADOLESCENCE (*continued*)

Characteristic	*Early Adolescence* 12–14 years (Junior High School)	*Middle Adolescence* 15–17 years (Senior High School)	*Late Adolescence* 18–20 years (Junior or Community College)
GROWTH IN INDEPENDENCE (*continued*)	ment to be a basic characteristic of independence.	sents a stage in growth toward independence. Development of conduct codes by middle adolescent groups and the display of loyalty to common agreements increases. Reluctance to accept full responsibility for own acts still exists for many.	recognized as a necessity in an interdependent society. Practically all activities are self-selected, and decisions relating to future plans are made personally. Guidance from adults is sought and welcomed.
INTERESTS	Tend to be numerous, somewhat superficial, and utilitarian. Vocational interests are typically centered around a few "popular" careers, such as medicine, aviation, and science for boys; nursing, airline hostess work, and modeling for girls. Changes are made readily and easily with each new infatuation, although certain ones will tend to dominate the center of concern.	Interests of peer-group play significant role in determining those for the individual—in recreation, choice of educational experiences, work, and cultural tastes. Realm of vocational choice is normally expanded. Interests are more frequently established in terms of evidence, yet some interests are attractive because they are shared by accepted "heroes."	Vocational interests are becoming fairly well established in terms of recognized personal aptitudes and vocational requirements. Interests in intellectual and aesthetic pursuits become prominent. All interests tend to focus upon vocational and educational preferences, individual talents, social and

Few prolonged interests in intellectual processes that do not afford accompanying sensory experiences. Reading, motion pictures, and radio interests center in adventure, humor, and love, in this order. Interests in the past are focused on dramatic discoveries, personalities, events, inventions, and mysteries. Individual hobby interests tend to give way to group or club activities.	*Pressure from parents may cause youth during this period to resist certain interests and to accept others.* Intellectual and aesthetic interests expand during this period, often through conformance to group endorsements. In terms of interests, middle adolescence represents a period of broad exploration. Sensory impressions and emotional reactions still play a significant role in determining interests. Interests for boys and girls tend to differ as girls become more advanced in sexual adjustment. The mysteries of human development and social theories represent concerns that are becoming of interest to this age group. Those that can be related to the immediate environment are considered first. Self-interest tends to exceed interest in other people.	athletic activities, and matters related to the opposite sex. Interests of girls tend toward love stories and popular novels; for boys trend is toward material related to anticipated vocations, science, humor, love, and adventure. Often, individual interests may differ materially from those of other age-mates. Growth in interests in civic affairs, politics, economic trends, social issues as well as world relationships is increasingly pronounced at this time. Interest in religion and in values in general is frequently rekindled during this period. Interests in each other and in the common welfare often overshadows self-interest.

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used as a guide to developing an understanding of the three major growth stages experienced by each individual at one time or another as he achieves full adulthood. Some students will be accelerated while others may be retarded in their patterns of maturation; consequently, they can be expected to move ahead or stay behind their chronological age group. The brief descriptive statements are attempts to represent, not the median or norm for each period, but rather the type of growth stage through which adolescents may pass and the kind of problems they are likely to meet as they grow toward independence.[6]

Qualities that characterize adulthood. In planning ways of helping adolescents to make the transition from the various stages of adolescent growth to full adulthood it is helpful to examine the characteristics that are usually associated with normal, well-adjusted adults. Some of the more important of these qualities are classified under four major categories as shown in Figure 14.[7] A narrow concept of the function of secondary education has limited our concern in teaching to restricted segments of a total summation of the characteristics that comprise normal adult personality. Whereas the development of habits and skills have frequently been stressed, it will be observed that these efforts have not always included emphasis upon such important factors as group participation, self-evaluation, independence in thought and action, self-direction, co-operation, and rational inquiry. The same might be said of emphasis upon knowledges and understandings. Although we have long recognized the importance of teaching students

[6] References:

Faculty of The University School, *How Children Develop*. Columbus, Ohio: College of Education, The Ohio State University, 1946, 79 pp.

National Society for the Study of Education. *Adolescence*. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1944, 358 pp.

Peter Blos, *The Adolescent Personality*. New York: D. Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1941, 51 pp.

Frances Burks Newman, *The Adolescent in Social Groups*. Stanford, California: Stanford University Press, 1946, 94 pp.

American Council on Education, Commission on Teacher Education, *Helping Teachers Understand Children*. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1945, 468 pp.

Robert A. Davis, *Educational Psychology*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1948, 349 pp.

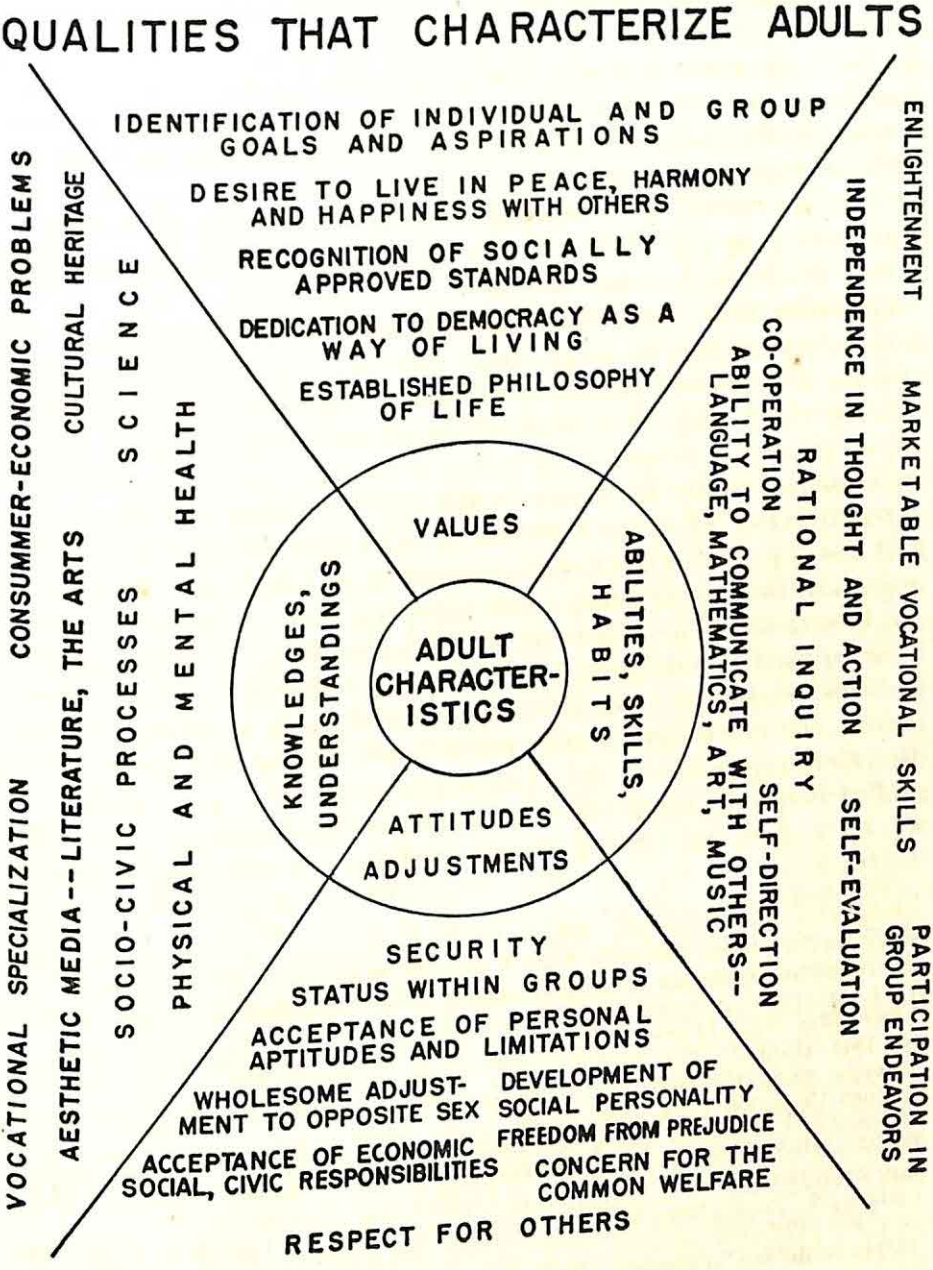
[7] The following references will help to develop an expanded concept of the characteristics of adulthood:

Faculty of The University School, *How Children Develop*. Columbus, Ohio: College of Education, The Ohio State University, 1946, 79 pp.

Educational Policies Commission, *Education for All American Youth*. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1944, 421 pp.

Educational Policies Commission, *The Education of Free Men in American Democracy*. Washington D. C.: National Education Association, 1941, 115 pp.

FIGURE 14


QUALITIES THAT CHARACTERIZE ADULTS
IDENTIFICATION OF INDIVIDUAL AND GROUP GOALS AND ASPIRATIONS
DESIRE TO LIVE IN PEACE, HARMONY AND HAPPINESS WITH OTHERS
RECOGNITION OF SOCIALLY APPROVED STANDARDS
DEDICATION TO DEMOCRACY AS A WAY OF LIVING
ESTABLISHED PHILOSOPHY OF LIFE
VALUES
ADULT CHARACTER-ISTICS
KNOWLEDGES, UNDERSTANDINGS
ABILITIES, SKILLS, HABITS
ATTITUDES
ADJUSTMENTS
SECURITY
STATUS WITHIN GROUPS
ACCEPTANCE OF PERSONAL APTITUDES AND LIMITATIONS
WHOLESOME ADJUSTMENT TO OPPOSITE SEX
DEVELOPMENT OF SOCIAL PERSONALITY
ACCEPTANCE OF ECONOMIC SOCIAL, CIVIC RESPONSIBILITIES
FREEDOM FROM PREJUDICE
CONCERN FOR THE COMMON WELFARE
RESPECT FOR OTHERS
VOCATIONAL SPECIALIZATION
CONSUMMER-ECONOMIC PROBLEMS
AESTHETIC MEDIA--LITERATURE, THE ARTS
CULTURAL HERITAGE
SOCIO-CIVIC PROCESSES
SCIENCE
PHYSICAL AND MENTAL HEALTH
ENLIGHTENMENT
MARKETABLE VOCATIONAL SKILLS
PARTICIPATION IN GROUP ENDEAVORS
INDEPENDENCE IN THOUGHT AND ACTION
SELF-EVALUATION
RATIONAL INQUIRY
CO-OPERATION
ABILITY TO COMMUNICATE WITH OTHERS--LANGUAGE, MATHEMATICS, ART, MUSIC
SELF-DIRECTION

about their mental and physical health, this activity has frequently been accorded last place in our emphasis in actual teaching and curricular programs. The other two categories—values and attitudes, adjustments—represent concerns that we have sought largely as an outcome of presumably concomitant learnings and transfer values. Their importance to successful adult living, however, is readily apparent.

Assisting youth to become independent. Even before early adolescence, beginnings in independent action occur in some boys and girls. By the time youth reaches junior high school it has initiated certain tendencies toward independence. The senior high school and the junior college serve the function of encouraging growth in this direction, the latter institution endeavoring to complete the task of helping youth to establish complete independence.

The establishment of what may commonly be regarded as full independence does not mean cessation of reliance upon others for guidance. Even the most independent adults, if they are well adjusted, occasionally turn to others for help. The businessman eagerly searches for assistance in analyzing trends in the market. The successful physician seeks guidance from other doctors when confronted with a difficult case. No individual ever is likely to reach, nor should he expect to reach, a point where guidance is unnecessary.

Neither does independence suggest a condition in which an individual *does not need or receive assistance* from others. Just as each person may at one time or another use the lending services of his bank, he may find it desirable to seek help in other ways from friends and professional associates. This is frequently a basis for serious conflict when parents seek to contribute assistance, financial or otherwise, to their newly married children. So many factors affect the status of independence—economic, social, marital, health, and educational—that it is necessary to think of this condition as one in which complete interaction and mutual aid with others has been achieved and maintained under conditions of mutual benefit for both the individual and society.

The status of independence necessary and desirable for the adult citizen may be characterized by the following qualities:

1. Willingness to help formulate and abide by group agreements.
2. The recognition and acceptance of our interdependence upon our fellowmen as a means to maintaining our own status.

3. Willingness and skill in working with others, in assuming our share of group responsibilities, and in seeking solutions for common problems.

4. Willingness to participate in action springing from incentives based upon personal and group goals.

5. Willingness to assume responsibility for our own acts.

6. Ability and willingness to discover and make use of knowledge that is fundamental to the solution of normal problems of living.

7. Habits of reaching decisions in terms of evidence involved and with reasonable allowance for unobtainable data that might be significant.

8. Possession and willingness to make use of marketable skills.

9. Intelligent reliance upon one's own judgment in forming and executing plans.

10. Possession of the civic and social knowledge necessary for effective citizenship.

Inasmuch as independence in action results from having opportunity to act upon one's own initiative, from making plans and carrying them out, and of learning from mistakes as well as from successes, it is a function of instruction to provide such opportunities. Junior college students are permitted a wide choice in selecting a course of study, and they are assisted in making changes if their choices prove undesirable to themselves because of incompatibility with selected goals, because of failure to satisfy tastes or abilities in a particular field, or for any other valid reason. The junior college represents the final stage of the secondary school during which youth may find occasions for exploring and testing their vocational and educational preferences.

Junior college students often need help in finding out to what extent they should increase their skill and proficiency with tools of learning. Generally, they will readily accept opportunities to test those skills measured by standardized instruments and those developed by teachers. They should be provided opportunities to continue improvement in reading skills, especially the vocabulary and reading requirements for each special field they study.

Functional knowledge held to be a part of the general education needed by all includes knowledge that is related to physical and mental health, socio-civic activities, consumer and economic problems, aesthetic experiences, and the meaning of democracy. During the junior college years there is a continuing responsibility to facilitate the acquisition of such knowledge and its use

in growth toward independence. Acquaintance with such fields as the humanities and biological, physical, and social sciences usually can be acquired by students through survey courses. More thorough knowledge of such subject matter as it pertains to one's chosen career is usually provided through specialized course offerings for both college-going and terminal students.

Aiding youth to appraise life plans. Careers usually will have been tentatively chosen by late adolescents during their junior high school years. Vocational plans, however, may change many times during the senior high school as students learn more about themselves and about the requirements of different possible vocations. Not until about the thirteenth and fourteenth years is a permanent choice made by a majority of students who then look forward to entering the business world or to becoming homemakers after or before graduation from this division of the secondary school. The junior college teacher will be called upon to guide students in the making of final choices or in evaluating the probability of success based upon a choice already made in the light of accumulated information related to individual aptitudes and abilities.

The junior college teacher will assume some guidance responsibility even in institutions where professional counselors are employed. Guidance may be incidental or planned; it may be requested by a student or volunteered by the teacher. It may be given to a group or to only one individual. Several individuals may take part in the guiding process which includes interviews before matriculation, during registration, and in connection with course work. Tests are coming to be used extensively to aid the student in understanding himself, his needs, and his aptitudes and abilities. These tests include personality inventories and scales that measure attitudes, tendencies, emotional traits, vocational interest inventories, tests in subject-matter fields, and those related to such skills as manual dexterity, perception, and physical coordination. Data collected by such means may cause changes in student plans since, when added to what is already known about capacities and aptitudes, they may convince the individual that previous plans may not have been adapted to his capacities and interests.

Frequently, a student who previously had desired to become an engineer discovers during his junior college mathematical experiences that higher mathematics is too difficult for him to master. Or he may find that the satisfaction he derives from studying courses that engineers are requested to take is insufficient to encourage the

continuation of this vocational choice. A girl who has always wanted to be an artist but who thinks she must study something that will help her earn a living may suddenly find that she will be getting married soon; consequently, she may decide to change her study to art in order that she can learn as much about it as possible in the remaining time she has to study.

Another example of the changes that take place in future plans is that of one junior college student who had always wanted to study music. The benefits of the G. I. Bill of Rights for veterans made such a course of action possible. He soon discovered, however, that he did not like to practice and that he was unwilling to devote the necessary time to learn to play. After one quarter, in which the student achieved little else except the gathering of data about himself through experience, plans to study music were dropped. Examples such as these illustrate the changes that take place in the plans of later adolescents under the guidance and encouragement of those who have the opportunity to help students choose courses of study in relation to rapidly crystallizing long-term life plans.

Whether it is the formulation of educational and vocational plans or those related to leaving school to work, getting married, enlisting in the military service, or joining a school or community organization, junior college teachers have a rich opportunity to help students to see the desirability of obtaining information that will help in making choices. When choices have already been made, emphasis turns to evaluation in relation to aptitudes, interests, possibility of continued training, and the probability of permanence of present interests. A major contribution can be made by helping the student find information such as the type of associates one will have in certain kinds of work, the possible changes in occupational demands, probable future legal restrictions in particular occupations, health hazards, social prestige associated with a given occupation, and the effect of changing social and economic conditions upon working conditions in various vocations.

Most junior colleges are beginning to offer courses in *Marriage and the Family,* designed to help both boys and girls gain information concerning the qualities necessary for successful married life. Such a course seeks to help students learn how to acquire the personal qualities they lack and how to improve those that are only partially developed. When instruction of this kind is based upon needs of the students rather than upon theoretical and technical sociology, it may become invaluable to students whose marriage

FIGURE 15

STAGES IN THE MAKING AND VERIFICATION OF CHOICES DURING THE SECONDARY SCHOOL YEARS

	Junior High School	Senior High School	Junior College
Major Emphasis	Recognition of need for and beginning of choice making	Exploration and change	Verification and solidification
Areas of Choice Making	Leisure-time and recreational pursuits		
	Vocations		
	Educational experiences		
	Group associations		
	.....Marriage		
	.....Personal codes of values		
	.....Religious faith		
	.....Participation in community life		

Continuing emphasis _____

Growing concern .....

and homemaking plans are being formulated or evaluated. Not all students, however, will enroll for courses in marriage and the family, and of those who do, not all will find the help they need for formulating and evaluating their marital and family plans. Often students prefer a teacher other than one who teaches the course as a personal counselor on problems related to choosing a mate and marriage.

Equally important to helping those students who are considering marriage make decisions relative to their problems is the matter of helping students who tend to be social isolates to develop social skills and personal qualities that will make them attractive to others. Young people who have failed during their earlier adolescence to make congenial and wholesome adjustment to members of the opposite sex are likely to be seriously in need of help in facing this adjustmental problem. Overcoming such conflicts and removal of embarrassment resulting from these and similar problems is not likely to be accomplished by means of individual counseling alone. It is highly important that such students be provided with easy, progressive opportunities to practice social skills

within sympathetic groups. Most junior college students have reached a level of maturity at which they respond readily to opportunities to help other less well-adjusted individuals to learn acceptable social skills.

Another developmental area that often is neglected by both students and teachers is that of recreation. Young people need to acquire skill in and a liking for forms of recreation that they can follow and enjoy in later life. Both the athlete and the nonathlete, whether boy or girl, need to gain experience in the appreciation of social activities and physical games that can be continued after marriage and established within the routines of adult living. Playing football or dancing may supply all the thrill and emotional outlet needed while students are in school, but the playing of football can be followed by very few after leaving school, and dancing is likely to grow tiresome if it is continued as a regular activity for many years. Students need to be encouraged to take part in many kinds of recreation of a quiet or only semi-strenuous type. They need to learn to enjoy recreational experiences that can be enjoyed by both boys and girls—tennis, badminton, golf, ping pong, cards, shuffleboard, and hiking. Extraclass experiences in junior college should encourage students to participate in a variety of leisure activities in order that they may become sufficiently proficient in at least a few such activities that their interest will assure participation during adulthood.

Providing work experiences. In recent years increased concern has been expressed by educators over the fact that many young people who live in urban centers under modern-day work and employment conditions reach their adult years with little or no work experience.[8] Arguments for work experience for adolescents are twofold. First, it is believed that youth do not progress normally toward maturity without firsthand experience with work other than the simple chores that they perform for their parents in their homes. Secondly, work experience is conceived as one of the best and most economical ways of helping youth to establish sound vocational choices that will lead to gainful employment and successful vocational adjustment.

[8] See the following:

Educational Policies Commission, *Learning the Ways of Democracy*. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1940, 486 pp.

———, *Education for All American Youth*. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1944, 421 pp.

American Association of School Administrators, *The Expanding Role of Education*. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1948, 315 pp.

Harold J. Dillon, *Work-Experience in Secondary Education*. New York: National Child Labor Committee, 1946, 96 pp.

1. The contribution of work experience to the common welfare. Americans have long believed in the value of work experience in facilitating growth toward independence and self-direction. In addition to seeing values in a type of work experience that might be thought of as preparing for effective employment, we are coming to stress the importance of work experiences that tend to develop a willingness to participate in co-operative action for the common good. Of this type of work experience the Educational Policies Commission recommended in behalf of the ideal secondary school:[9]

> Each student is expected to render some service to the school and the community each year, without pay, as his or her contribution to the common welfare. Checking books in and out at the library, cleaning the cafeteria after lunches, desk duty in the school office and the game library, and grading and rolling the ground for the community playground are examples. Students are rotated on such work, so that each has his fair share of the interesting and the routine.

This type of work experience stresses the importance of learning to apply oneself unselfishly in the interest of group needs, the belief being that youth who learn to work to improve group living in school will develop into adult citizens who will be glad to contribute liberally to efforts to improve community life. Frequently, a distinction is made between work that students do at the school and in the community for the purpose of learning—usually performed free or for a nominal wage—and work that is performed for pay with the production of goods and services as an objective.

2. Work experiences under conditions of employment. The relationship between educational experiences and firsthand work experiences under regular employment conditions is coming to be stressed in programs of terminal vocational education. In the past, many students have worked on a part-time basis as a kind of extracurricular activity. During the past decade, however, students in courses called distributive education, diversified trades, industrial occupations, and co-operative business more and more commonly have received school credit for practical work experience.

The terminal program of the junior college affords a particularly favorable setting for the provision of work experiences for pay and under regular working conditions. Many students need help in financing their educational programs, and all need work

[9] Educational Policies Commission, *Education for All American Youth*, p. 167.

experience. Such experience may be considered as either exploratory—designed to help students discover abilities and interests—or as a phase of specialization in which the student learns to put into actual practice skills and theories of work that he studies in the classroom. In many instances students gain contacts through work experiences of this type that lead directly to employment upon graduation from school. The Educational Policies Commission suggests that by 1950 we should be able to write of students in American Secondary Schools:[10]

> Today practically every student who expects to go into employment from high school or community institute (the junior college) spends a period of time at productive work for wages, while he is still enrolled in school. The schools have the co-operation of a large number of employers, both private and public. If these employers can't furnish enough regular jobs to go around, student-aid funds are used to pay for work needed by public agencies. Each work-experience project is selected and carried out under supervision and is considered a part of the student's educational program.

In terms of teaching method, our responsibility in regard to work experiences for youth of the junior college seems to lie in the direction of the following:

1. Finding ways to relate work experience to the particular subject area in which we teach.
2. Providing supervision for students who engage in work experience projects either of a community-service nature or for vocational exploration and improvement.
3. Working co-operatively with students to plan educational experiences that are related to the work that needs to be done in the community, both for the production of goods and services and for the improvement of community living.

Helping youth to accept full citizenship responsibilities. By the time a majority of students complete junior college, they have reached or are nearing their twenty-first birthday, which is regarded as evidence of mature or legal citizenship with its accompanying privilege of the franchise. If our teaching has fulfilled its social purposes, these young adults will consider their citizenship rights and responsibilities as duties that are self-imposed, and they will exercise them accordingly. When appropriate guidance is available, rapid growth toward the acceptance of such responsibilities usually results throughout the thirteenth and fourteenth years of school.

[10] Educational Policies Commission, *Learning the Ways of Democracy*, p. 192.

It has been suggested that the three essentials of effective education are appropriate ideals, pertinent knowledge, and functional habits.[11] From the early years of secondary school, ideals of citizenship participation will have been held before youth as worthy of following and as necessary if democracy is to be perpetuated. It becomes the responsibility of the junior college, however, to make these ideals function in youth's preparation for independent action during adult years. Students can be helped to gain pertinent knowledge related to their socio-civic obligations regardless of whether they are registered in classes in history, civics, music, science, or any other course. It should be considered a regular and fundamental responsibility of each teacher—through guidance and the provision of educational experiences—to help students attain those aspects of knowledge that are necessary for effective citizenship.

Functional democratic habits can be acquired effectively only by means of *actual participation* in democratic practices—participation that is voluntary, satisfying, and self-approved. Junior college teaching can provide opportunities for each student to put his talents and interests into practical experience, to accept the responsibility that is associated with adulthood, and to develop capacities both for leadership and for working smoothly and co-operatively in the group when some other person is designated as a leader. Opportunities for fulfilling this objective are to be found in classrooms in which teacher-student sharing, discussion, experimentation and the study of group dynamics are methods of teaching depended upon by the teacher; in student organizations that are operated in a manner to enlist co-operative decision making and shared respect; in student government that seeks to secure full participation and the acceptance of responsibilities by all as well as the observance of regulations agreed upon by members of the group; in work experiences directed toward the satisfaction of group needs; and also as an outgrowth of participation in community life and civic affairs—locally, nationally, and world-wide.

Students should be encouraged to engage in learning activities in which they can gain skill either by making judgments on a basis of sufficient evidence or by learning to suspend judgment until such evidence becomes available. It is recognized that such habits will be helpful when as adults they are called upon to act as judges in municipal or higher courts or to serve on juries in judgment of their fellow men. Few, however, will ever perform such responsibilities. All students, on the other hand, will pass

[11] R. O. Hughes, "In-School Civic Activities," *NEA Journal*, 37:292–3, May, 1948.

judgments, day by day, on matters that involve fairness, honesty, tolerance, fair play, and other qualities that, when considered in terms of their cumulative effect, may be fully as important as the function performed by the judge on his bench. Whenever the individual votes, whenever he exercises his prerogative of free speech, and whenever he acts in relation to himself and to his group, the judgments he makes help to form the basis for determining the quality of life that can exist within his group.

Feelings of kinship with larger groups such as state, national, and international bodies, and a sense of responsibility for sharing in their purposes and for contributing, even in a small way, to the accomplishment of national and world harmony and understanding represent an additional goal of citizenship responsibility that should be sought in the junior college. Interest in world affairs will lead students to seek accurate information upon which decisions related to personal attitudes and action may be based. As a result of helping youth to grow in ability to understand the plight of the people of their own nation and of the rest of the world, it can be hoped that an increasing interest in the promotion of international understanding and co-operation will develop.[12] The American Association of School Administrators suggests the following principles of action in this connection:[13]

1. World citizenship is the responsibility of all classes and departments.
2. Teachers will avoid the exhibition of prejudice.
3. Domestic and international problems should be considered together.
4. We should teach the truth about war.
5. Students should be acquainted with the machinery for maintaining world peace.
6. The best available educational materials related to world understanding should be made available to students.

Only through a spirit of wanting to serve will adults offer their services to their community and nation in the pursuit of world understanding and peace. Usually those citizens who are the most vigorous workers for community improvement and better government on a state and national level also become the most ardent leaders for international harmony and co-operation. Teachers

[12] For a challenging discussion of this probability read Harold Benjamin, *Under Their Own Command*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1947, 88 pp.
[13] American Association of School Administrators, *The Expanding Role of Education*. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1948, p. 182.

who regard themselves not only as supporters of world co-operation but as actual world citizens with individual responsibilities, who are informed on international policies and issues, and who use their influence whenever possible to help form and modify national policies will gain increased competence for guiding students as they continue to devote their attention to improving the relationships of themselves and their students to other human beings of their nation and world.

Beyond performing the duty of voting, of holding office, of assisting those who are working to improve American democracy, of becoming informed about world problems, and in being tolerant of people of all colors, races, nationalities, and creeds, true citizenship participation will lead to the desire and ability to right the wrongs that oppress mankind. Individuals so inspired will seek to lift to a higher plane of living the "little people" of the world—both at home and abroad.

Such a desire can reach its full development during study in the junior college. It can begin with class or school practices, extend to the local community, and finally be felt in larger spheres until such a spirit of brotherhood will exist that peace may become a reality throughout the world. This ideal will seem far off and unattainable as long as it remains in the hearts and ideals of only a few. If it is to become a reality, all later adolescents must be provided opportunities and experiences that encourage them to make a beginning at developing their capacities for accepting responsibilities for citizenship on an increasingly larger scale.

In the junior college many young people will find their last opportunity, under guidance, to build competencies that will contribute strongly to making them both independent and socially conscious in accepting and carrying out their citizenship responsibilities. This realization should present a challenge to the junior college teacher to do all that lies within his power to perform this high function of assisting youth to become a true bulwark of democracy not only in the United States but, in at least a hopeful sense, in the world as a whole.

Inspiring youth to plan for continued growth. Conscientious teachers have often asserted that their most earnest desire is to teach in such a way that when students leave their classes they will be imbued with the desire to continue learning. As a process of adjustment, education goes on throughout the life span of the normal individual. The degree to which significant growth continues after the completion of the period of formal schooling is

dependent largely upon the satisfactions that accompany school experiences.

Students can be encouraged to widen their circle of friends and acquaintances among people outside their occupational group. They can be helped to choose hobbies that will provide relaxation from work and afford opportunities for building interests that can be followed into adulthood and that may furnish an avenue upon which continued growth can take place. Plans can be made and habits formed before students leave junior college that will help them to continue their intellectual growth through reading, radio listening, motion picture experiences, travel, attending evening classes, writing, correspondence, or individual study. Other plans can be formulated with respect to ways of studying, enjoying or performing in the fields of music, art, or literature and to the organization of and participation in community forums, discussion groups, radio clubs, and book clubs. Habits of participation are perhaps the most important avenues to continued growth in later life, for through participation growth is furthered.

Plans to promote the development of desirable personality traits will depend upon knowledge of how to develop those characteristics considered to be significant. Provision for practicing habits of courtesy, of refinement, of wholesome emotional reaction, and of acceptable social behavior, can be easily incorporated into instructional procedures in the arts and sciences, in semi-professional or vocational courses, and in commercial and industrial training.

Personal acceptance of religious views and of a practical and satisfying philosophy of life represents areas in which continued growth should be encouraged and in which assistance should be furnished. During their thirteenth and fourteenth years of schooling, youth normally grow seriously concerned about such problems. Adolescents' impulses to break away from the external control of adults sooner or later lead them to question the precepts and religious teachings of their home and church. This will be true, often, in proportion to the degree of authoritarianism that has accompanied their training during early childhood. This condition—a perfectly normal one in most cases—causes immeasurable insecurity and misunderstanding for both later adolescents and their parents. Not infrequently is the school the object of blame by parents for contributing to a distrust of religious faith by students. By utilizing a guidance approach, those who teach junior college students can contribute much to helping them to

analyze their religious conflicts and discover for themselves those principles of living they can accept and endorse.

One should not become discouraged when some students fail to exhibit interest in planning for continued growth. It should be remembered that individual differences exist not only in terms of desire to plan for continued growth in praiseworthy citizenship qualities but also with respect to ability to carry out recognized plans. If students can be assisted to adopt favorable attitudes toward planning for continuing growth, at least one important function of teaching must be considered to have been accomplished satisfactorily. Unless teachers themselves have reached a high stage of development in democratic citizenship qualities and are experiencing constructive growth that is indicative of continuing improvement, their contribution to the morale of their students in respect to inculcating nobler human relationships is not likely to be of a high order.

Patterns of Teaching Adapted to the Junior College

The lecture and recitation methods of teaching, both teacher-centric in their nature and organization, are thoroughly imbedded in the instructional practices of the junior college. Many who teach at this level have never attempted to employ any other method. Even in such courses as science, in which laboratory procedures are a necessity, it is common practice to devote more time to lecturing and to conducting recitations than to guiding experimentation and self-discovery.

Certain broad patterns of teaching, all of which are representative of teacher-student sharing, are coming to be recognized as better suited to the purposes that need to be served by the junior college as the final stage of secondary education and that are better suited to the maturity level of later adolescents, to our growing understanding of the processes of learning and adjustment, and to the theory of democratic education. It is not to be assumed that it is desirable for a teacher to use the same method continually nor that all teachers will employ a particular method of teaching with equal effectiveness in differing situations. Each teacher will need to select and seek to perfect those patterns of teaching that prove to be most compatible with his personal qualifications, his level of professional development, and the situation in which they are to be employed.

Group discussion. Later adolescents are at an age at which they feel the urge to exchange ideas with each other. They seek, quite

naturally, to share with their fellow young adults the experience of formulating group plans in relationship to recognized group purposes. Many are just beginning to recognize the importance of effective oral expression in furthering individual and group plans.

The group discussion method of teaching receives additional support from the fact that it is representative of the prevailing nature of civic activities within the community. On the completion of junior college, students will enter into participation with other adults in the solution of their common problems. The method most frequently followed in arriving at such solutions is group discussion. When this method is employed in the junior college, students are provided a realistic opportunity to develop social skills and attitudes of co-operative deliberation that are essential to adult life.

Group dynamics. The techniques and co-operative procedures being developed through research concerned with group dynamics are particularly adapted to teaching at the junior college level.[14] Much of the experimentation carried on in this field has been related to ways of helping adults learn to analyze the structure of a group and to identify the forces that determine group behavior. Already, Earlham College of Indiana is pioneering in the field of relating theory and principles of group dynamics to community study and improvement.[15] Inasmuch as junior college students are assuming adult responsibilities and beginning to participate actively in community endeavors, this method of studying and bringing about change in group relationships, purposes, and procedures seems especially well adapted to use in the junior college.

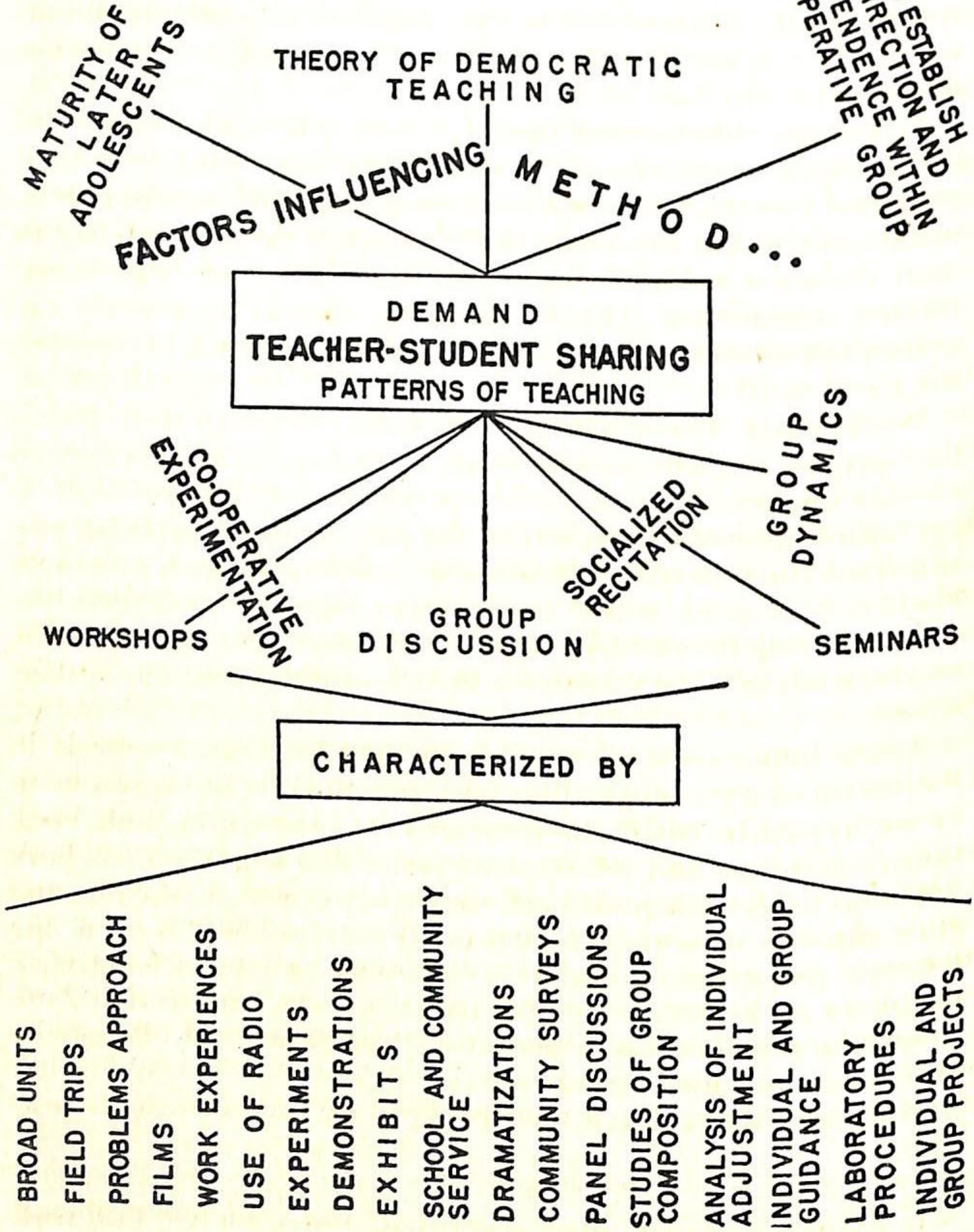
Co-operative experimentation. Older methods of individual study in laboratory situations, many of which emphasized almost exclusively the development of ability to follow directions, are being adapted to procedures that permit and encourage co-operative experimentation by several individuals. This method of teaching places major emphasis upon self-discovery and co-operative thinking and action. Its value lies in the direction of promoting critical thinking and rational inquiry, furthering creativeness, and developing skill in group processes.

[14] See the Society for the Study of Social Issues, "The Dynamics of Group Discussion," *Journal of Social Issues*, Vol. IV, No. 2, Spring, 1948, 75 pp.
National Training Labratory in Group Development, *Report of the Second Summer Laboratory Session*. Bethel, Maine, June 13 to July 3, 1948, National Education Association and Research Center for Group Dynamics, University of Michigan, 1948, 136 pp.

[15] William W. Biddle, *Community Studies and Dynamics*, First Annual Report. Richmond, Indiana: Earlham College Bulletin, 148, 20 pp.

FIGURE 16

PATTERNS OF TEACHING FOR THE JUNIOR COLLEGE



Seminar experiences. The type of seminar experiences usually reserved for advanced graduate students are quite appropriate as a pattern of teaching in junior college courses such as English, psychology, social studies, history, geography, science, foreign languages, and the arts. This method may be used with equal effectiveness in the fields of commerce, salesmanship, and other terminal vocational courses not directly concerned with the perfection of manual skills.

Commonly, the seminar provides opportunity for members of the group to make reports to each other concerning individual problems selected by members of the group. Adaptations can be made easily in this procedure to permit more than one student to share the study and reporting of problems that are of their mutual interest and concern. This modification tends to increase the opportunities provided during the learning experience for improving social skills.

Workshops. The workshop is a method of group work that is well adapted to a situation in which a number of individuals need to work co-operatively on problems that are of concern to all. It has been employed extensively in the past in connection with programs for the in-service education of teachers. In such programs, teachers of a given school system meet together continuously—usually during the summer months—for two weeks or more of intensive study of ways to improve the educational program of their school.

At the junior college level, this method has been employed in short-term courses designed for part-time workers in various fields or for regularly employed personnel in connection with vocational upgrading and job improvement. The workshop has been used effectively with junior college students prior to, during, and after supervised work experiences. It can be employed as the means of preparing a group for a community survey or for participation in such specific community projects as an election campaign, the promotion of a recreational program, and other types of community improvement.

Major characteristics of the workshop are found in the following:

1. Emphasis placed upon immediate and common problems that demand group attention in their solution.
2. Sustained concentrated effort by all members of the group for a period of time. Usually, people who are engaged in workshop

experiences devote all their time in the workshop to topics or problems that are of immediate concern to the group.

3. Emphasis on the correlation of ideas, materials, and other contributions from individuals who represent several subject matter or managerial fields. Every available resource is brought to bear upon the solution of the problems under consideration in a manner that will prove beneficial to all who participate.

4. Use of many leaders and experts in working out solutions of group problems. Although one person usually serves as coordinator of a workshop, the group actually searches for assistance from any and every individual who may be able to contribute to its needs.

The workshop will have particular usefulness for those who teach at the junior college level in promoting specialized programs of adult education in such fields as homemaking, agriculture, industry, business, the semiprofessions, community improvement, and national and international problems. Teachers of business education subjects, for example, will find the workshop a useful method in preparing junior college students for service to merchants for special jobs such as customer surveys, annual inventories, and advertising campaigns. Many of these procedures may not exactly fulfill the specific description of a workshop, but students and teachers who use them will be able to make good use of many workshop techniques.

Socialized recitation. The socialized recitation represents an easy transitional step from traditional teaching procedures to those characterized by co-operation between the teacher and members of the group. It will be particularly helpful to teachers who feel insecure when they "stop talking" or lay aside the textbook. Emphasis placed in this technique upon formal procedures, such as the election of group leaders, following established rules of order in the conduct of the class meetings, and the assignment of individual responsibilities, offer a type of control that many teachers find helpful as they undertake to plan their teaching methods.

Summary

The junior college, as a final stage of public secondary education, has the responsibility of helping youth to achieve independence. This phase of secondary education serves three major functions: (a) providing general education to all youth; (b) continuing preparation for further formal study; and (c) supplying terminal

vocational education. In the past, the junior college, like the senior high school, has tended to warp its curricula and teaching procedures in favor of the minority group of students who planned to go on to four-year colleges. Since approximately three-fourths of all youth now enrolled in junior colleges will terminate their formal schooling upon the completion of the fourteenth year, emphasis upon citizenship education and vocational training becomes vitally important.

Factors that affect teaching in the junior college include the college preparatory aims and functions that are stressed by many who teach in such institutions, the quality of professional experience and formal preparation of staff members, personal ambitions of teachers, the experimental role of the junior college, the maturity of later adolescents, the imminence and reality of student purposes and goals, and identification of the learning experiences provided in the junior college with life within the community. The over-all responsibility of teaching in the junior college is that of facilitating the transition to adulthood. Implied is a broad concern for values; abilities, skills and habits; knowledges and understandings; and attitudes and adjustments.

Patterns of teaching adapted to the junior college are influenced by the maturity of later adolescents, the need of students to establish complete self-direction and independence within co-operative groups, and the theory of democratic teaching for secondary schools. The most suitable methods provide for teacher-student sharing in the development and evaluation of learning experiences. The patterns that have been found to be most nearly compatible with the needs of later adolescents and the social purposes of the junior college include group discussion, socialized recitation, co-operative experimentation, group dynamics, workshops, and seminars.

Related Experiences

1. Characterize the nature of your own educational experiences during your first two years of college in terms of the three purposes of the junior college. Compare your experiences with those of other members of your group. Keep in mind that even in four-year colleges and universities that are tax-supported the functions of the lower division work may not differ greatly from those suggested for the junior college.

2. Using the suggested qualities that should characterize all normal adults, evaluate the extent to which your own educational experiences

in secondary school and during your thirteenth and fourteenth years of schooling helped you to develop these characteristics.

3. In co-operation with others, evaluate the degree of independence that is evidenced by members of your class on the basis of the ten qualities suggested.

4. Make a chart showing the stages of your own life plans with respect to when you first became concerned about and finally reached a state of solidification relative to such problems as choosing a vocation, planning educational experiences, or developing personal codes of values. Compare your chart with those made by your classmates.

5. Compare your previous work experiences in terms of their contribution to your interest in the common welfare of your group and to your vocational fitness.

6. See if you can find examples within your own institution (or in junior colleges or senior high schools) of the patterns of teaching suggested as most adaptable to the purposes of the junior college and the maturity of late adolescents.

7. Set up an experiment within your class group to try out the principles and techniques of studying group dynamics.

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